

An
Introduction to
THE EMENDATION
of
A Shī'ite Creed



An
Introduction to
THE EMENDATION
of
A Shī'ite Creed

An Introduction to the Book
Taṣḥīḥu 'l-I'tiqād of
Abū 'Abdillāh, Muḥammad ibn
Muḥammad ibn Nu'mān,
Known as ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd.
(336/948 or 338/950 – 413/1022)
by:

Muḥammad Riḍā Ja'farī

Volume I

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***In the Name of Allāh
The All-Compassionate, The All-Merciful***

*Praise belongs to Allāh, the Lord of all Being;
the All-Compassionate, the All-Merciful;
the Master of the Day of Judgement.
Thee only we serve; and to Thee alone we pray
for succour.*

*Guide us in the straight path,
the path of those whom Thou hast blessed,
not of those against whom Thou art wrathful,
nor of those who are astray.*

* * * * *

*O' Allāh! Send your blessings to the head of
your messengers and the last of
your prophets,
Muḥammad and his pure and cleansed progeny.
Also send your blessings to all your
prophets and envoys.*

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ
أَجْمَلُ اللَّهِ رَبِّ الْعَالَمِينَ الرَّحْمَنَ الرَّحِيمِ
مَالِكِ يَوْمِ الدِّينِ إِيَّاكَ نَعْبُدُ وَإِيَّاكَ نَسْتَعِينُ
أَهْدِنَا الصِّرَاطَ الْمُسْتَقِيمَ صِرَاطَ الَّذِينَ
أَنْعَمْتَ عَلَيْهِمْ غَيْرِ الْمَغْضُوبِ عَلَيْهِمْ
وَلَا الضَّالِّينَ

اللَّهُمَّ صَلِّ عَلَى
سَيِّدِ رُسُلِكَ وَخَاتَمِ أَنْبِيَائِكَ
مُحَمَّدٍ وَآلِهِ الطَّيِّبِينَ الطَّاهِرِينَ
وَصَلِّ عَلَى جَمِيعِ الْأَنْبِيَاءِ وَالرُّسُلِينَ

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TRANSLITERATION

Ar. Letters	Transliteration	Ar. Letters	Transliteration
ء	'	ق	q
ا }	a	ك	k
ب	b	ل	l
ت	t	م	m
ث	th	ن	n
ج	j	و	w
ح	ḥ	ه	h
خ	kh	ي	y
د	d	ة	ah
ذ	dh		.
ر	r		
ز	z		
س	s		
ش	sh		
ص	ṣ		
ض	ḍ		
ط	ṭ		
ظ	ẓ		
ع	‘		
غ	gh		
ف	f		

Short Vowel

َ	a
ِ (or ٓ)	i
ُ	u

Long Vowels

آ	ā
ي	ī
و	ū

مقدمة الناشر

و الحمد لله الذي وقفنا لنشر (تصحيح الإعتقاد) للشيخ المفيد بعد أن وقفنا من قبل لنشر (اعتقادات الإمامية) للشيخ الصدوق، رضي الله عنهما و عن جميع العاملين لنشر الاسلام وخدمة المسلمين.

وكانت الترجمة الإنجليزية لتصحيح الإعتقاد قد أحييت إلينا منذ زمن، وكان الاستاذ المترجم قد أعدّها أطروحة جامعية، و قسّمها الى ثلاثة اقسام، القسم الاول ترجمة للمفيد، و الثاني ترجمة نص الكتاب، و الثالث التعليقات و الهوامش التي علّقها المترجم على بحوث الكتاب. وكان هذا القسم الأخير لا يتفق كل ما جاء فيه و الهدف الذي وضعناه لأنفسنا في أعمالنا، و لا مع المقاييس التي نختار بها ما ننشر، فاكثفينا بنشر القسمين الأولين فحسب.

ولكنّ أحد المسؤولين قد وضع مقدّمة للكتاب تلافياً فيها ما كان يؤدّي إليه حذف القسم الثالث من خسارة فوضعناها كمدخل للكتاب.

و من الله نسأل و اليه نبتهل أن يجعل عملنا خالصاً لوجهه الكريم، وأن يسدّد خطانا، وأن يوفّقنا لما فيه رضى له و لرسوله الكريم و آله الاكرمين، صلوات الله و سلامه عليهم أجمعين، إنّه نعم المولى و نعم النصير.

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١٤٢٦/٦/٢٠

٢٠٠٥/٧/٢٧

PUBLISHER'S FOREWORD

Praise be to Allāh through Whom we have succeeded in publishing *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqāḍ* ["The Emendation of A Shī'ite Creed"] by the Shaykh al-Mufīd, after having succeeded, through Him, in publishing *I'tiqāḍātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* ["A Shī'ite Creed"] by the Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq, may Allāh be pleased with both of them and with all those who work for the spread of Islam and in the service of Muslims.

The English translation of *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqāḍ* has been with us for some time, the translator having prepared it as part of his university thesis which consisted of three parts: a biography of al-Mufīd, the translation of the text of the book, and a section of commentary and notes which the translator attached to the sections of the book. Since the contents of this final section were somewhat inconsistent and not in keeping with the aims we have set ourselves in our work, nor with the standards we have set for our publications, we have been content to print only the first two parts.

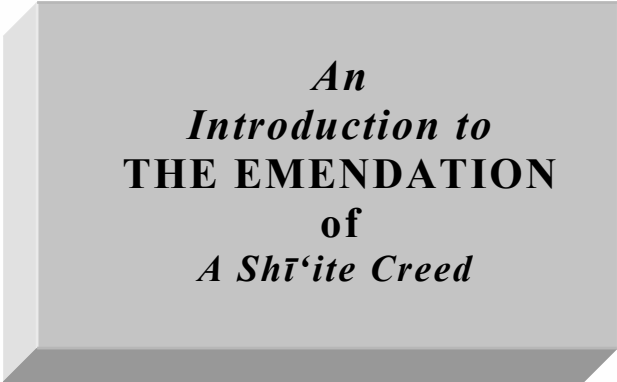
However, one of our colleagues has written a preface to the book, which redresses the errors, which were responsible for the shortcomings of the third section, and we have included this as an introduction to the text.

We beseech and implore Allāh that He may, of His abundant generosity, make our effort free from errors, and enable us to attain His approval and that of His Prophet and his most noble Family, may the blessings and peace of Allāh be upon them all. Verily He is the perfect Master, the most excellent Protector.

WORLD ORGANIZATION FOR ISLAMIC SERVICES,
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Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad an-Nu‘mān ash-Shaykh Abū ‘Abdillāh al-Mufīd, Ibnu 'l-Mu‘allim, al-‘Ukbarī al-Baghdādī (336/948–413/1022) was the teacher of the Shaykhu ‘ṭ-Ṭāifāh, Abū Ja‘far aṭ-Ṭūsī, who said of him:

The leadership of the Imāmiyyah in his own time devolved upon him; he was foremost in the science and practice of dialectical theology (*kalām*), a foremost jurist (*faqīh*), and an energetic thinker with an astute mind, always ready to answer . . .¹

Three centuries after al-Mufīd, the ‘Allāmah al-Hillī (648/1250–726/1325), one of the most well-known and learned of the scholars of the Imāmiyyah, said this about him:

[He was] one of the most outstanding *shaykhs* of the Shī‘ah, their leader and their teacher, and all those who came after him relied on him. His pre-eminence in law (*fiqh*), theology, and the narration of Tradition (*riwāyah*) is too well known to require description. [He was] the most reliable and learned of his contemporaries, and the leadership of the Imāmiyyah in his time devolved upon

¹ *al-Fihrist*, p.186.

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him; he was an energetic thinker with an astute mind, always ready to answer . . .²

In the introduction to the *Kitābu 't-Tawhīd* from the *Uṣūlu 'l-Kāfi* I gave a selection from the biographies which Imāmī scholars of theology wrote of the Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh be pleased with him, and pointed out his particular theological position, his teachers in theology, and his works in that subject.

Professor 'Irfān 'Abdu 'l-Ḥamīd, the translator of *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqād* has likewise given, as part of his introduction, a biography of al-Mufīd in which he reviews the political life and events of the Shaykh's times, describing the political and sectarian struggle and its complications. Both the adverse and painful effects it had on al-Mufīd, as well as the benefit he derived from it, are covered. This is the approach taken here in writing about al-Mufīd, lest accusations of sectarianism be levelled by the likes of those who delight in the power of the sword when it falls on the necks of others, but are troubled when the wails and cries of the condemned disturb their own repose, and are even more perturbed when these groans and tragedies are recorded and documented, while they themselves remain unaffected by them.

For this reason apologies should be given in advance to our noble Sunnī and Shī'ī brethren in case they come across anything which may offend them in Professor 'Irfān's book; for none of us, praise be to Allāh, have had anything to do with these misfortunes. We ask nothing more of Allāh than that He bestow a beneficial life of brotherhood on all Muslims, so that those who come to write the history of our own times will not have to describe it in the same way as the history of that previous age.

There are, however, in what Professor 'Irfān mentions some defects which it will do no harm to point out. What we cite here will suffice to explain our criticisms.

² *Khulāṣatu 'l-aqwāl*, p.147.

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2

SOME COMMENTS ON
PROFESSOR 'IRFĀN'S INTRODUCTION

a

Professor 'Irfān says³ that the Shaykh al-Mufīd 'was proud of his purely (*aṣ-ṣarīḥ*) Arab ancestry.'

He does not give any source for this statement, but what may have led him to this conclusion about al-Mufīd was the discovery he made about the latter's ancestry in an-Najāshī⁴ who traces al-Mufīd's lineage back to Ya'rūb ibn Qaḥṭān. Now this was the kind of activity in which an-Najāshī revelled as a result of his meticulous concern for genealogies. He wrote a work on the science of genealogy, which he mentioned when he gave his own biography in his *Fihrist*.⁵ His concern for line-age is also apparent in many of the biographies, which he included, and the ancestries of his subjects will be found traced back to the original tribes from which their clans arose.⁶

Apart from an-Najāshī, others, such as the Shaykhu 'ṭ-Ṭāifāh at-Ṭūsī in his *al-Fihrist* and *ar-Rijāl*, wrote biographies of these people, but they lack the chains of ancestry which an-Najāshī mentions.

Our Shaykh al-Mufīd – in common with other Muslim scholars and jurists, and even with the devout among the Muslims who are not scholars or jurists – was more excellent in his faith, knowledge, and understanding of the Islamic *sharī'ah*, and nobler in character than that he should console himself by comparison with the pre-Islamic period, or boast about what Allāh and His Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his Family and

³ *The Emendation of A Shī'ite Creed*, Intro., p.3.

⁴ *al-Fihrist* (Bombay, 1317), p.283-4.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p.74.

⁶ See *ibid.*, pp.7, 16, 59, 77, 90, 93, 97, 125, 145, 158-9, 162, 190, 202, 281- 2, 297-8, and 305.

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grant them peace, had kept the believers away from: they had been warned not to boast of it, nor even to rely on it. The Messenger of Allāh said in the famous sermon, which he delivered in Mekkah when Allāh granted him victory over it, when He had fulfilled His promise, had strengthened His army, and had alone put the polytheists to flight:

'O people, verily Allāh has taken from you the haughtiness of pre-Islam (*al-jāhiliyyah*) and its boasting of ancestors and clans. Men are of two [kinds]: [those who are] pious, God-fearing, enobled before Allāh, and [those who are] sinful, wretched, insignificant before Allāh . . . Man springs from Ādam, and Allāh created Adam from dust. Being Arab does not mean [having] parentage from a [single] father, it means [having] an eloquent language, and one who was unable to speak it was not counted as one of them.' Then he recited Allāh's words: '*O people! We created you from male and female, and made you into peoples and tribes that you might know one another. Truly, the most noble of you in Allāh's sight is the most God-fearing. Verily, Allāh is All-knowing, All-wise*' (al-Ḥujarāt, 49:13).⁷

I have not come across any source in which al-Mufid himself cites, or refers to, this lineage of his, nor one in which he mentions, or refers to, an Arab tribe to which he belongs.

b

Professor 'Irfān states⁸: 'Among those who wrote elegies on [al-

⁷ al-Kulaynī, *al-Kāfi*, vol.8, p.246; al-Husayn ibn Sa'īd, *al-Mu'min*, p.56; al-Majlisī, *al-Bihār*, vol.21, pp.137, 138; vol.73, p.293; at-Tirmidhī, *aṣ-Ṣaḥīḥ*, vol.5, pp.389, 734, 735; Abū Dāwūd, *as-Sunan*, vol.4, p.331; Aḥmad, *al-Musnad*, vol.2, pp.361, 523-4; Ibn Hishām, *as-Sīrah*, vol.4, pp.54-55; al-Wāqidī, *al-Maghāzī*, vol.2, pp.835-7; Ibn Sa'd, *at-Ṭabaqāt*, vol.2 pt.1, p.103; at-Ṭabarī, *at-Tārīkh*, vol.1, p.1642.

⁸ *The Emendation of A Shī'ite Creed*, Intro., p.4.

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Mufīd] was his pupil, the Sharīf ar-Raḍī.' This can only be a slip or an unintended mistake. The Sharīf ar-Raḍī died in the year 406/1015, two years before the death of his teacher, al-Mufīd. The one who elegized him was another of his students, ar-Raḍī's brother, the Sharīf al-Murtaḍā, who died in 436/1044, who elegized him with a *qaṣīdah* rhyming in *mīm* of thirty-three verses.⁹

3

THE EXTENT OF AL-MUFĪD'S RELATIONS
WITH AŞ-ŞADŪQ

This book, *Taṣhīhu 'l-i'tiqād*, is a commentary on the book *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah*, written by aṣ-Şadūq, the Shaykh Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn 'Alī ibn al-Ḥusayn, Ibn Bābawayh, al-Qummī (c 306/919–381/991). In this book, the Shaykh al-Mufīd comments on the places in which he disagrees with what aṣ-Şadūq said, either in matters of independent reasoning, or concerning the evidence upon which aṣ-Şadūq relies, or on the grounds of the nature of the argumentation where they agree upon the evidence. Some discussion of this aspect will follow.

As for the connection between al-Mufīd and aṣ-Şadūq, aṣ-Şadūq was one of those with whom al-Mufīd studied in the early years of his life when he was not yet twenty years old. al-Mufīd studied with him when aṣ-Şadūq was in Baghdad, and heard Traditions from him. He received his authorization (*ijāzah*) to transmit his writings and his narrations of Traditions; thus aṣ-Şadūq was one of al-Mufīd's mentors in Traditions. I believe that the duration of this relationship was short for the following reason.

aṣ-Şadūq was born and raised in Qum and then emigrated to

⁹ *Dīwānu 'l-Murtaḍā*, vol.3, pp.204-6.

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Rayy, where he resided until he died. He travelled in search of Traditions and other material, and made a journey to Iraq on his way to the *hajj*. aṣ-Ṣadūq himself mentions that he came to Baghdad on his way to the *hajj* in the year 352/963.¹⁰ It appears that he came to Baghdad towards the end of that year, because he left Rayy on a pilgrimage to Mashhad (of ar-Riḍā, peace be upon him) in the middle of that year.¹¹ His *hajj* was in the following year, 353/964, so he must have left Baghdad in the middle of the year, considering the conditions of travel in those days, and the time, which it would have taken him to cover the distance and carry out the rites of the *hajj*. What indicates this chronology of events is that aṣ-Ṣadūq mentions that he was in Fayd (a town half-way between Kūfah and Makkah)¹² in 354/965 after completing the *hajj* to the House of Allāh,¹³ and that he reached Kūfah in the middle of that year.¹⁴ In the same year, on his way back from Madīnah, he was in Hamadān, in Iran, relatively near to his home-town of Rayy if considered in relation to Kūfah.¹⁵ It is inconceivable that he should have performed the *hajj* in the same year, 354/965, in which he was in Fayd on his return, then in Kūfah and later in Hamadān. The *hajj* only occurs in the last month of the lunar year, and in the light of all this it can be concluded that aṣ-Ṣadūq could only have stayed in Baghdad a few months, not a complete year, and that these months were at the end of 352/ 963 and at the beginning of the following year. One therefore has to disagree

¹⁰ *Uyūnu 'l-akhbār*, vol.1, pp.59 & 279; *Kamālu 'd-dīn*, vol.1, pp.93, & 277.

¹¹ *Uyūnu 'l-akhbār*, vol.1, pp.14, 99, 118, 178, 209; vol.2, pp.99, 121, 238, & 279; *Ma'āni 'l-akhbār*, p.145; *at-Tawhīd*, p.406.

¹² *Mu'jamu 'l-buldān*, vol.4, p.282.

¹³ *Uyūnu 'l-akhbār*, vol.2, p.57.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, vol.1, pp.81, 129, 138, 144, 249-50, & 262; *al-Amālī*, vol.2, pp.13, 65, 93, and many other places; *al-Khiṣāl*, vol.1, pp.46, 57, 83; vol.2, pp.13, 65, & 93.

¹⁵ *al-Khiṣāl*, vol.1, pp.106, 295 & 320; *at-Tawhīd*, p.77.

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with what an-Najāshī states about aṣ-Ṣadūq reaching Baghdad in 355/966¹⁶ – and all those who dated his entering Baghdad to that year took this from him – because this would necessarily mean either that he returned there from Hamadān, where he was in 354/965, when he was half-way back to Rayy, or that he headed back to Baghdad a second time after reaching Rayy, and that would seem to be very far-fetched.

Whatever may have happened, the Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq reached Baghdad, narrated, and also heard, Traditions there. The Imāmī *shaykhs* studied with him, according to an-Najāshī, and among them was the Shaykh al-Mufīd. Naturally, in such a short time his lectures could not have included all his books and narrations, and most of them must have been narrations by proxy, not his own lectures in the strict sense of the word.

The relationship between these two men – according to what I have mentioned – was not a master/pupil relationship, in the strict sense of these terms, such that aṣ-Ṣadūq can be counted, as he is by Professor ‘Irfān in the introduction to this translation, as one of al-Mufīd's teachers. It is accurate to distinguish in this discussion between being a teacher's student and acquiring Traditions from a *shaykh*. In the strict sense, al-Mufīd had only four teachers who were scholars of theology, and these were enumerated in my earlier biography of him; and in the legal sciences such as (*fiqh*), and *ḥadīth* there was a single teacher, with whom al-Mufīd studied for many years and 'from whom he acquired what he knew', as his biographers state, and this was the Shaykh Abu 'l-Qāsim Ja‘far ibn Muḥammad ibn Ja‘far Mūsā, Ibn Qūlawayh, al-Qummī, later al-Baghdādī (c 282/898–368/979). When al-Mufīd died, he was buried beside the grave of his teacher in the holy shrine at Kāzīmayn [Iraq].

¹⁶ *al-Fihrist*, (Bombay, 1317), p.276.

**DIFFERENCES IN HOW IDEAS ARE ARGUED
DO NOT REFLECT DIFFERENCES
IN THE IDEAS THEMSELVES**

Before we enter the main part of the discussion of the dogmatics of the Imāmīs and their two schools of Tradition and theology, a fact of the utmost importance must be stated right at the beginning, one which it would be an error to leave unnoticed or ignored, which is that it is necessary to distinguish between a given belief as such and the demonstration of that belief and how it is attained. Opinion can concur on one of the principal dogmas while the demonstrations which establish that principle can differ. For example, unicity (*tawhīd*) is the most important principal dogma of Islam, and no Muslim can be counted as such unless he acknowledges it and those attributes of the Creator or the aspects of His Oneness which establish the necessity of belief. However, there are differences in the way in which unicity and the attestation of the Creator are sum-marily demonstrated, or in which their details are elaborated. These demonstrations can depend on the Holy Qur'ān and the *Sunnah*, or they can depend on intellectual proofs. This difference in the kind of proof, or in the nature of the demonstration, be it right or wrong, does not necessarily mean there is a difference in the dogma itself.

It would be possible to give dozens of examples of this. The Imāmate, according to the meaning of it in which the Imāmīs believe, by which they are distinguished from other Muslim sects, is a dogma which all the Imāmīs share. In its very nature it is a matter, which depends on transmission, i.e., the Qur'ān and the *Sunnah*, but there are serious differences in its demonstration, and between one scholar and another there can be total disagreement. We may find one scholar exclusively citing Qur'ānic verses and Traditions, while another, who cites, alongside what

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is called 'transmitted proofs', intellectual proofs, within the limits within which this kind of discussion is bound by intellectual proofs and their particular domain. If the well known debates of, the famous Imāmī theologian, on the Imāmate are referred to,¹⁷ a great difference will be found between him and many who gave theological arguments for the Imāmate, whether they were contemporary with him or came after him. It is not only that Hishām quoted Traditions without discussion and opinion, explanation and commentary, but frequently he did not quote a specific Tradition verbatim and referred only to the meaning and recited its contents as if it were he who were saying it.

One of the clearest examples of what is being discussed can be found in the difference between *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* by our Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq, and *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqād* by our Shaykh al-Mufīd, as will be shown. Moreover, a single author, such as al-Mufīd, differs in the kind of discussion he uses from one place to another. A good example occurs in the introduction which al-Mufīd wrote for the *Kitābu 'l-Irshād*, in one part of which he employed the style of *ḥadīth* quotation, and in another the style of dialectical theology; and yet both sections are concerned with exactly the same topic. This is not to say that the Imāmiyah differed on the subject of the Imāmate itself, or its meaning and special characteristics; however, it is correct for us to distinguish between two schools among them: that of Tradition, and that of dialectical theology. Moreover, it is the case that their approaches differed with respect to the study of the Imāmate.

For a precise examination, which does not jump to conclusions on the basis of those instances in which we initially find difference and disagreement in the substance of the two approaches, we must carefully consider the effect these methods

¹⁷ See, e.g., *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, pp.171-3; al-Kishshī, pp.258-63; *Kamālu 'd-dīn*, vol.20, pp.362-8; *al-Khiṣāl*, vol.1, p.215; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.218-21; *al-Biḥār*, vol.48, pp.189-93, 197-203.

had upon the fundamental conclusions which their adherents arrived at, and then weigh the results one against the other not the methods utilised to reach these results. In the light of this, we can then conclude whether there really was a difference in opinion or belief; otherwise, the consideration of mere methodological differences will lead to erroneous assumptions about differences in the principle of the belief, which each method supports or refutes.

5

THOSE BELIEFS WHICH ARE INCUMBENT ON BELIEVERS AND THOSE WHICH ARE NOT

It is now necessary to turn our attention to what the Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq states in *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah*, to the additions the Shaykh al-Mufīd makes in *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqād*, and to what they both say, in general, about the beliefs of the Imāmiyyah. What follows divides itself into two sections, something which is not specific to the beliefs of the Imāmiyyah alone, but is in fact generally the case with Muslim dogmatics; nevertheless, we shall restrict our discussion to the Imāmiyyah.

a

The beliefs, which true faith, requires of every responsible individual (mukallaf): A Muslim cannot be considered one of the Imāmiyyah unless he maintains all of these. No one of them is excused for not knowing them, and, because of that, the ignorant person has to attain knowledge in such a way that he can learn proofs and ways of thinking so that the true faith is produced in him through knowledge and peace of mind. The five dogmatic principles are, in brief: Unicity (*tawḥīd*), i.e. that Allāh, Eternal, All-Powerful, and All-Wise, is alone the Creator, and is alone to be worshipped, without associates in either

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creation or worship; Justice (*‘adl*), meaning that Allāh, praise be upon Him, does not oppress or persecute, not because he is unable to do so, but rather because His essence is divine perfection, free from evil-doing, and never without good; the Hereafter (*ma‘ād*), the meaning of which is clear and does not vary between Muslims; Prophethood (*nubuwwah*), which is the belief in the message of the Prophet of Islam, may Allāh bless him and his family and grant them salvation, and that he is the seal of the prophets, after whom no prophet will appear, and that the Holy Qur’ān is the book which Allāh sent down to him as proof of his prophethood and a manifestation of His message; and the Imāmate, the explanation of which will follow.

b

Elaborations on the issues of Unicity, Justice, the Hereafter, Prophethood, and the Imāmate: It is not necessary that every *mukallaf* – that is, everyone who has the necessary prerequisites for responsibility for his duties – should know these details; nor does he have to learn about these elaborations to the point where he believes in them – as, on the contrary, it is necessary for him to learn how to pray, for example, in order to be able to perform the prayer–; ignorance in these cases is pardonable. Most of the contents of the book *I’tiqādāu ‘l-Imāmiyyah*, with respect to the elaborations on the five principles we have indicated, belong to this second category. Our Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq did not intend to clarify simply those beliefs incumbent upon the individual, but rather those beliefs, which the Imāmiyyah hold as a whole, whether or not such a belief was requisite. The intention in this was to give a clear, comprehensible picture of the doctrines of the Imāmiyyah in matters which had caused concern among certain Muslims, whether there was agreement in the matter or not.

I have made this point in order that we may avoid gross

mistakes or inaccuracy in understanding the Imāmiyyah and their beliefs. As a single example of learned and detailed investigation to this effect, one has the work of a scholar who is considered one of the most renowned Imāmī scholars and *fuqahā'*, the Shaykh Murtaḍā al-Anṣārī (1214/1800–1281/1864), in his well-known textbook *Farāidu 'l-uṣūl*, which is famous as *ar-Rasāil*, where he discusses the problem of the sufficiency of probable opinion (*ẓann*) in the principles of the religion; and there are additionally the glosses which a group of the greatest and the most knowledgable *mujtahids* and jurists of the Imāmiyyah in recent times have written on it.¹⁸

6

THE BELIEFS OF THE IMĀMIYYAH

To begin with, the Imāmiyyah distinguish themselves from other Muslim groups by their doctrine of the divine Imāmate, from which they take their name. Thus Muslims are split into two sects on the basis of their different positions on the question of who should succeed the Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his family and grant them salvation. (The history of this division, when and why the schism occurred, is not our concern at this point.) First there are those who maintain that the Prophet of Allāh designated an imām after him in a way which was unequivocal and did not require interpretation, that this was done through a revelation from Allāh and was not a result of his personal desire for which there was absolutely no divine command, and that he named them individually and said how many there would be, especially the first of them, he being 'Alī, the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him; that the Imāms possess knowledge of the *sharī'ah*, infallibility, perfec-

¹⁸ *ar-Rasāil*, offset, Tehran, 1377, pp.230-42.

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tion, and the power to work miracles such as the Prophet possessed, and that they must be obeyed and revered as he must be; the only difference lies in Prophethood and the revelation of the Divine Law, which are peculiar to him – there is no prophet after him. Secondly, there are those who do not believe in the Imāmate in this sense, and who maintain instead that the matter of succession was either neglected, as the Prophet did not say anything definite about it, or that it was left to the Muslims themselves to choose whom they wished to rule over them, although they differed about how they should choose him, what his qualities should be, and the characteristics of the electors.

However, the differences between the Imāmiyyah and other Muslim sects concerning the Imāmate carries over to disagreements in many other matters, some of which pertain to basic dogma, and some to law and jurisprudence. The most important points of dogma in which the Imāmiyyah differed from other Muslim sects are as follows:

a

Regarding Unicity, they believe in the complete and total rejection of any belief in the corporeality of Allāh or in anthropomorphism, either in a literal or an interpreted sense. On this basis, they categorically deny that Allāh is visible, either in this world or in the Hereafter, in wakefulness or in dreams. They also reject the attribution of spatio-temporal movement and translocation to Him, because they deny that time and place can be ascribed to Him.

b

They believe that the attributes of Allāh divide themselves into attributes of essence and attributes of action, and that the former exist in the very existence of His essence, and are absolutely

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one with Him, eternally pre-existent in, not with, the pre-existence of His essence itself. On the other hand, attributes of action are, in reality, actions of Allāh, which come into existence. On this basis, they distinguish between the All-Knowing (*al-‘Ālim*) and the Living (*al-Ḥayy*), and the Creator (*al-Khāliq*), the Provider (*ar-Rāziq*), and the Speaker (*al-Mutakallim*); (these examples are merely cited by way of illustration, and are by no means exhaustive). They also maintain that the second group of attributes derive from the actions of Allāh, and come into existence with the coming into existence of the act. For this reason, they do not believe that the Qur’ān is eternally uncreated, although some of them avoided saying that it was created.

C

With respect to Justice (*‘adl*), whereby they counted themselves among the ‘Adliyyah, their belief contains both elaborations and consequence: (i) the impossibility of demanding that a legally responsible individual do that which he is unable to do; (ii) the impossibility of punishing an individual for that which he could not avoid doing, or was unable to do, except when his inability sprang from his own choice; (iii) the evil of punishment without clear notification; and (iv) the necessity for Allāh to establish a Proof (*ḥujjah*) for creatures by way of mercy (*lutf*) – part of this is the sending of the Messenger.

7

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
THE IMĀMIYYAH AND THE MU‘TAZILAH

However, the picture of the Imāmiyyah and their beliefs which emerges among historians of the sect – and I am referring to those who were not themselves Imāmī – differs from the afore-said in several respects. Even if these writers did not distin-

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guish between Imāmī ideas and opinions and the kind of demonstration used, it is nevertheless a picture, which gives us reason to pause. There exists a prevailing opinion among them that these ideas and opinions were passed on to Imāmī scholars at a time somewhat after the formation of the sect, through their being influenced by the thinking of the Mu'tazilah and following their teachers.

This is the approach that Professor 'Irfān adopts in his introduction generally, and specifically in the third part, in which he comments upon the sections of the book in more detail; and this is one of the reasons we have not published it. This third part investigates the relationship between Shī'ī and Mu'tazilī theology at the time of the Buyids. He states:¹⁹

A critical examination reveals that the shift in Shī'ī theology from its form based on *ḥadīth* to its rationalist, interpretative form was in the beginning inspired by the critical and rationalist positions of the Mu'tazilah . . .

al-Mufid exemplifies the novel rationalist direction in Shī'ī thought, which was responsible for the rejection of a literal interpretation of the divine *sharī'ah*, and which introduced rationalist and interpretative explanations of it into the teachings of the Imāmiyyah . . .

A critical, comparative examination of the differences between *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqād* and its precursors must centre itself upon the influence of the Mu'tazilah upon the Imāmiyyah.

In addition to these statements, in which he fails to distinguish between differences in belief and differences in the methods of proof or ways of demonstration, Professor 'Irfān also makes the following points:

i) That the Imāmiyyah were, at the beginning of their history, transmitters of *ḥadīth* and partisans of doctrines based solely

¹⁹ *The Emendation of A Shī'ite Creed*, Intro., p.13ff.

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upon the Holy Qur'ān and the *Sunnah*, without recourse to reason (*'aql*) and the sort of demonstration resting upon its use, which they rejected.

ii) That the shift in Shī'ī theology from its early form to a subsequent variant one was a result of the contact of the Imāmiyyah with Mu'tazilī ideas, by way of the instruction they received from Mu'tazilī *shaykhs* and the influence of their views.

iii) That al-Mufīd was the first to complete this shift.

iv) That this judgement is based upon a comparison between the theological views of al-Mufīd and those of his predecessor aṣ-Ṣadūq.

v) That the 'rationalist school of theology', with which al-Mufīd is associated, is defined as 'the rational and metaphorical, or interpretative, explanation of the Muslim *sharī'ah*.'

We shall treat the first four of these points in what follows. It is enough to comment here on the definition of the rationalist school he gives by saying that the *sharī'ah* has two facets: the dogmatic aspect, or what is designated as the principles of the religion, which the faith requires of the Muslim, and the practical aspect, or derivatives of the religion, which are the divine laws associated with worship, transactions, rights, the judicial process, and all that which is investigated in the science of *fiqh*. Allāh forbid that our Shaykh al-Mufīd and all the Imāmiyyah, not to mention the Mu'tazilah and those who followed them, such as the Zaydiyyah, should rely on rational or interpretative explanations for the derivatives of the religion, such as prayer, fasting, *zakāt*, *ḥajj*, and the other laws of worship and transactions, including everything contained in the *sharī'ah* and explained comprehensively and succinctly in the books of *fiqh*. It is true that there are some who speak of a hidden meaning (*bāṭin*) in the *sharī'ah*, and who explain prayer, fasting, and *ḥajj* in a way that excludes their being acts of worship; instead, they

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maintain, the *sharī'ah* contains secrets such that he who discovers them and holds faith in them has no need to act according to the ostensive meaning of the divine law, and that the burden of the law is lifted from him. How few are those who believe such things and speak of themselves as Muslims; and how many are those who accuse people of this falsely and maliciously, and are actually trying to dispel suspicion or repel accusations levelled at themselves.

It is necessary for us to add that rationalist and interpretative explanation of the Book [of Allāh] and the *Sunnah* regarding matters of belief is not, as some would have it, arbitrary or wishful, zealous or fanciful, or some sort of search for buried treasure, or a devilish incitement to revolt against Allāh and His Prophet. Rather, it centres upon the adoption of the stronger of two arguments, and the explication of the weaker of the two in light of the stronger, or on the basis of a comparison and evaluation of the evidence used. For this activity there are principles and guidelines, which form the subject matter of the science of *uṣūlu 'l-fiqh*.

8

**THERE IS NO DIFFERENCE IN THE PRINCIPAL BELIEFS
BETWEEN THE TWO IMĀMĪ SCHOOLS**

The Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq stands out amongst the Imāmī scholars of Tradition and Narration. A few aspects of his distinctive character have been mentioned in the introduction to the English translation of his book *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah*. He came from a scholarly family, distinguished in the science of *ḥadīth* and its transmission, and he faithfully adopted their methods. All of what he held conforms with what the Imāmī scholars of *ḥadīth* agreed upon, especially the Qummī school, or at least with what the greatest of them taught, except in a few

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places, such as the inattention of the Prophet in prayer. In this latter opinion he followed his teacher Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥams ibn al-Walīd, whom the majority of scholars, Tradition-ist or otherwise, did not agree with.

A comparative study of *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* and the commentary made upon it by the Shaykh al-Mufīd in *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-'itiqād* reveals the overwhelming concurrence of the Traditionist and theological schools of the Imāmiyyah with respect to the principles of dogma and its details; in comparison, the points where the two schools disagree in these matters are very few. Indeed, the difference between them is only in the method of demonstrating their opinions in dogmatics.

A comparative study also reveals that criticisms by Imāmī theologians of the *ḥadīth* which the Traditionists relied upon did not arise essentially from their stances on dogma and their disagreements about the principles of theology, but rather was centred on standards for the criticism of the *ḥadīth* each Traditionist employed, through criticizing the chain of transmission, bringing its narration into question and showing that one of its transmitters was not trustworthy, or through casting doubt upon what it proved, rejecting it because it contradicted a stronger proof from the verses of the Holy Qur'ān or from *ḥadīth* whose chain of transmission was superior to it or whose proof was clearer. This must be set against the accusation usually made by non-Imāmī Traditionists, including the theologians of the Jahmiyyah, Mu'tazilah, Murjiah, and others: that they completely rejected verses of the Holy Qur'ān and well-established Prophetic *sunnah* if these disagreed with their own theological views.

It may be that the secret to understanding this methodological dispute between the Imāmī and non-Imāmī Traditionist schools goes back firstly to the difference between the nature of the Imāmī and non-Imāmī *ḥadīth* which each of them chose to

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employ, as we shall indicate. Secondly, Imāmī and non-Imāmī *mutakallims* are distinguishable in that rarely does one come upon an Imāmī *mutakallim* who is not also well versed in *ḥadīth* and its sciences, such that he combined these two qualities equally in his theology. If a man specialised in *ḥadīth*, he was not ignorant in *kalām*, adopting a hostile and controversial stance opposing it; and if he was addressing theological issues, then he did not find himself able to dispense with *ḥadīth* and their soundness of transmission, as was said about others.

Another of the Shaykh al-Mufīd's works, *Awā'ilu 'l-maqālāt fi 'l-madhāhib wa 'l-mukhtārāt* reveals differences between Imāmī scholars up to his time, whether they were scholars exclusively of *ḥadīth* and *fiqh*, or exclusively of *kalām* (to the best of my knowledge, this applies only to some members of the Banū Nawbakht), or of both. But these differences are few when compared to their agreements. Such a study also reveals differences between these scholars and those from other prominent sects of Muslims up to al-Mufīd's time.

On these matters, there is a need for a detailed study comparing the books of aṣ-Ṣadūq and al-Mufīd. As space is limited here, however, it will suffice to cite the conclusions of a Western scholar, Dr. Martin J. McDermott, as they appear in his book *The Theology of al-Shaikh al-Mufīd*. Here I quote a short passage, in which he states:

Ibn Bābūya [aṣ-Ṣadūq] was a traditionist. When he set out to explain a difficulty or answer a question, he preferred to quote a tradition rather than reason out an answer of his own. Even his creed, the *Risālat al-i'tiqādāt*, consists largely of traditions strung together. Nevertheless he did hold many of the same theses as the theologians, and when a tradition he was reporting seemed to contradict one of his theological views, on God's Unity or Justice, for example, Ibn Bābūya would interject his own interpretation of the

tradition.

Herein lies Ibn Bābūya's major difference from his pupil, al-Mufīd, who is a theologian as well as a traditionist. When a point can be proved both from revelation and an argument from reason, al-Mufīd generally prefers to rely on the latter, quoting the tradition or quranic text as supplementary argument.

Most of the important theological doctrines held by Ibn Bābūya and his pupil are the same. . . .

Here he goes on to review the points of difference between the two as evident in their books. Then he states:

Ibn Bābūyā, then, is a traditionist with many views that are akin to Mu'tazilite theses. Al-Mufīd is a theologian as well as a traditionist, and his views, though basically similar to Ibn Bābūya's, go further in a Mu'tazilite direction.²⁰

I shall not comment on McDermott's words at all here, as the reader will himself find the differences between us in opinion and in conclusions in the following discussion.

9

WIDE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO NON-IMĀMĪ SCHOOLS

We must examine, if only very briefly, what has been referred to up to now as the 'non-Imāmī school of theologians', since there are common points which are mentioned as stemming from the beliefs of the 'people of *ḥadīth* and Tradition', and on the basis of which their views and beliefs are weighed against those of others, which were in fact taken from the non-Imāmī school, and proofs and evidence which are mentioned in this

²⁰ Martin McDermott, *The Theology of al-Shaikh al-Mufīd*, Dār al-Mashriq, Beirut, 1978, pp.367-9.

field which exist in a complete form in the body of *ḥadīth* which the non-Imāmī Traditionists relate, and which form the sole basis for the opinions which they adopted, or which were attributed to them.

In addition, the intellectual and doctrinal contradiction between the Traditionist and theological schools – in those days they were the Mu'tazilah, the Jahmiyyah, the Murjiah, and those who followed in their wake – was borrowed from non-Imāmī *ḥadīth*, from the opinions of non-Imāmī Tradition-ists, from their attitude towards the views of the theologians, from their dismissal of them, and from their criticism of those who held them; and indeed, from their criticism of them for the theological trend, in a general sense, in religious belief.

It is not correct to make these general characteristics, or these general contradictions, into a general trait of either the Imāmī or the non-Imāmī Traditionist trend, which is above all else based on the Holy Qur'ān and the *Sunnah*, in deducing and formulating religious doctrine.

What is called the 'Traditionist school' – a more accurate term for them, which they themselves prefer, is 'the people of *ḥadīth* and Tradition' (*ahlu 'l-ḥadīth wa 'l-athar*) – was not a school of thought which was defined and clearly characterized in all or many respects, as was the case with the Mu'tazilah or the Jahmiyyah, for example, so that it is possible to specify what opinions they agreed upon, and what distinguished them from other sects. Moreover, this designation was assigned to them not by their own choosing, but was derived from their positions and views. All that they believed was: that those who were involved with *ḥadīth* should not go beyond the *ḥadīth* which had come down to them, and which they believed to be true, in explaining their opinions and representing their beliefs, but that they should rely on the narration of the ostensive wording of the *ḥadīth* for expressing their views and should not

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change the wording for the convenience of the meaning.

Whatever we may say about them, the Traditionists certainly did not fit into one single mould, but rather into many, since the extent of the difference between any one Traditionist and any one of those they called theologians is only to be measured by the quantity of what the Traditionist narrated and the number of *ḥadīth* he narrated whose veracity he was committed to. It is clear that the Traditionists differed in the number of *ḥadīth*, which they narrated, and in the number, which they believed to be true. Moreover, they varied between those who had few and those who had many, and between those who were generous in judging veracity, and those who were strict, not judging them to be true unless many conditions were fulfilled. On this basis the *ḥadīth* differed in terms of those whose narrations they agreed upon and those, which were only narrated by some, as well as in terms of those whose veracity they were agreed upon and those whose veracity they were not agreed upon.

It should be noted that even though the Ash'arī school was based on the rejection of Mu'tazilī thinking, its teaching was primarily concerned with reconciliation and not rejection. For the teaching encompassed by it and contained in it went back to Abu 'l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī, 'Alī ibn Ismā'īl ibn Abī Bashīr, al-Baṣrī (260/874 or 270/883–324/936), the *imām* of the Ash'arīs, who quarrelled with his Mu'tazilī teachers over the fact that, according to him, they used to reject anything that went against their views even when the Holy Qur'ān and the authentic *Sunnah*, in his own view, supported it. However, there is not enough space here to speak at length about this or to marshal the evidence concerning it.

EXAMPLES OF NON-IMĀMĪ TRADITIONIST OPINIONS

It is not necessary here to speak at length about the *ḥadīth*, which are from our non-Imāmī brothers, as it is possible for the reader to find them comprehensively collected in the following sources:

1. Muḥammad ibn Ismā'īl, Abū 'Abdillāh al-Bukhārī (194/810–256/870): *Khalq af'āli 'l-'ibād*;
2. Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn Ḥanbal, Abū 'Abdillāh ash-Shaybānī (164/780–241/855), the *imām* of the Ḥanbalīs: *ar-Radd 'ala 'l-Jahmiyyah wa 'z-Zanādiqah*;
3. Abū 'Abdi 'r-Raḥmān, 'Abdullāh ibn Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, (213/828–288/901): *as-Sunnah*;
4. 'Uthmān ibn Sa'īd, Abū Sa'īd ad-Dārimī (c 199/815–280/894): *ar-Radd 'ala 'l-Jahmiyyah* and *ar-Radd 'alā Bishr al-Marrīsī*;
5. Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn Ishāq ibn Khuzaymah as-Salamī an-Naysābūrī (223/838–311/924): *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifati 'r-rabb*;
6. Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn ibn 'Abdillāh al-Ājurī, ash-Shāfi'ī, al-Baghdādī (c 280/893–360/970): *ash-Sharī'ah*.

And with reference to the interpretation of the Ash'arīs, see:

1. Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan ibn Fūrak al-Iṣbahānī, al-Ash'arī, ash-Shāfi'ī (d. 406/1015): *Mushkilu 'l-ḥadīth*;
2. Aḥmad (Ḥamad) ibn Muḥammad ibn Ibrāhīm, Abū Sulaymān al-Khaṭṭābī, al-Bustī, al-Ash'arī, ash-Shāfi'ī (319/931–388/998): al-Bayhaqī has quoted, below, many of his works;
3. Aḥmad ibn al-Ḥusayn ibn 'Alī, Abū Bakr al-Bayhaqī, al-Ash'arī, ash-Shāfi'ī (384/994–458/1066): *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt* and *al-I'tiqād*;
4. 'Alī ibn al-Ḥasan ibn Hibatillāh, Abu 'l-Qāsim ibn 'Asākir ad-Dimashqī, al-Ash'arī, ash-Shāfi'ī (499/1105–571/1176): *Tabyīn kidhbi 'l-muftarī fī-mā nasaba ilā Abi 'l-Ḥasan al-Ash'arī*.

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All these sources are in print; al-Khaṭṭābī's opinions are contained in al-Bayhaqī. I shall only give examples of the opinions of the Traditionists and ignore those who were *imāms* of a *madhhab*, such as the Ḥanbalī Imām Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, whose views and beliefs form the foundation for the doctrines of Ibn Taymiyyah, Taqīyyu 'd-Dīn, Aḥmad ibn 'Abdi 'l-Ḥalīm al-Ḥarrānī, al-Ḥanbalī (661/1263–728/1328), and Muḥammad ibn 'Abdi 'l-Wahhāb an-Najdī al-Ḥanbalī (1115/1703–1206/1792), the heralds and leaders of the Salafiyyah, as they call themselves, or 'the Wahhābiyyah', as others refer to them. I shall also steer clear of the *imāms* of other *madhhabs*, lest someone should associate me with people with whom I do not wish to be associated. Those who wish to study the views of the Ḥanbalī and other schools can find them in the afore-mentioned sources; in connection with the defence of Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, see the two following sources:

1. 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān ibn 'Alī ibn Muḥammad, Abu 'l-Faraj ibn al-Jawzī al-Baghdādī, al-Ḥanbalī (508/1114–597/1201): *Daf' shubahi 't-tashbīḥ bi-akuffi 't-tanzīh*;
2. Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn 'Abdi 'l-Mu'min, Taqīyyu 'd-Dīn al-Ḥiṣnī, ad-Dimashqī, al-Ash'arī, ash-Shāfi'ī (752/1351–829/1426): *Daf' shubah man shabbaha wa tamarrada wa nasaba dhālika ila 'l-Imām Aḥmad*.

* * * * *

Abu 'l-Faraj ibn al-Jawzī stated:

Know that all the Traditionists made the ostensive meaning of everything that had to do with the attributes of the Creator conform to the senses, and thus they were anthropomorphists, because they did not mix with the *fuqahā'*, so as to learn how to make the ambiguous conform with the unambiguous.²¹

He also said:

²¹ *Talbīs Iblīs*, al-Muniriyyah Press, Cairo, 1368, p.116.

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Know that people are at three levels concerning reports of [His] attributes: first, at a level at which they are taken literally, with no explanation or interpretation, unless necessity demands it – as in the case of His words: *and thy Lord comes* [al-Fajr, 89:22], i.e., His decree came – viz. the Salafiyyah; secondly, at the level of interpretation, which is a perilous position; and thirdly, at a level which is called conformity with the senses, which is common among ignorant 'reporters' [by this he means the Traditionists], since they possess no part of the intellectual sciences, which let it be known what is possible and what is impossible for Allāh, for intellectual science turns the ostensive meanings of what is reported away from anthropomorphism. Since they were deprived of this, they were at liberty in Traditions to make them conform to the senses.²²

In refutation of those who held that most of the Ḥanbalīs were corporealists and anthropomorphists, Ibn Taymiyyah said:

The corporealists and anthropomorphists were more prevalent in groups other than [that of] the followers of the Imām Aḥmad; these include certain groups of Kurds, all of whom are Shāfi'ī, and among them is found more corporealism and anthropomorphism than in any other group, and the people of Gīlān, among whom are Shāfi'īs and Ḥanbalīs. As for the pure Ḥanbalīs, there was not as much of it among them as among others; the Karāmiyyah were all Ḥanafīs.²³

I do not agree with Ibn Taymiyyah in his defence of the members of his school, but I shall remain silent about it – an apology to our brothers the Kurds whom Ibn Taymiyyah spoke

²² *Daf' shubahi 't-tashbīh bi-akuffi 't-tanzīh*, al-Maktabah at-Tawfīqiyyah, Cairo, 1976, pp.73-74.

²³ *al-Munāzirah fī 'l-'aqīdati 'l-Wāsiṭiyyah, Majmū'atu 'r-rasāili 'l-kubrā*, Dār Ihyā' at-Turāthi 'l-'Arabī, Beirut, offprint 2, 1392/1972, vol.1, p.418.

of as he did, for they know him as well as I do. As for the people of Gīlān, they stopped being Shāfi'ī and Ḥanbalī centuries ago, and today they are all Imāmī Shī'ī.

11

THE POSITION OF NON-IMĀMĪ TRADITIONISTS ON ANTHROPOMORPHISM

As examples of what Ibnu 'l-Jawzī pointed out in his discussion of the Traditionists, I shall choose three who are not clear-cut Ḥanbalīs, and I shall provide a short biography of each of them, so that I will not be accused of having stumbled upon two obscure and undistinguished men who were of little significance among Traditionists:

1. Ishāq ibn Ibrāhīm ibn Makhlad ibn Ibrāhīm, Abū Ya'qūb al-Ḥanzalī al-Marwazī, Ibn Rāhwayh an-Naysābūrī (161/778–238/853). al-Kātib said: "He was one of the leaders of the Muslims, a landmark in religion; he combined knowledge of *ḥadīth* and *fiqh*, his memory was excellent and reliable, and he was pious and an ascetic. He travelled to Iraq, the Ḥijāz, Yemen, and Shām . . . He came to Baghdad and became familiar with the memorizers of *ḥadīth* there, and exchanged narrations with them. He returned to Khurāsān and settled in Naysābūr."

al-Mazzī and as-Subkī said of him: "He was the teacher of al-Bukhārī, Muslim, at-Tirmidhī, Abū Dāwūd, and an-Nasā'ī, . . . Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, . . . and Yaḥyā ibn Mu'īn . . ."

Nu'aym ibn Ḥammād said: "If you see an 'Irāqī casting aspersions on Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, have your doubts about his beliefs; and if you see a Khurāsānī casting aspersions on Ishāq ibn Rāhwayh, have your doubts about his beliefs." And an-Nasā'ī said: "He was a leader, trustworthy, reliable." Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal said: "If Abū Ya'qūb [Ibn Rāhwayh], the commander of the traditionists, narrates something to you, hold on to it."

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Abū Ḥātim said: "He was a leader of the Muslims." Ibn Ḥibbān said: "Ishāq was a leader of his time in *fiqh* and religious sciences, a memorizer [of *ḥadīth*], someone who held opinions [in these sciences], someone who wrote books, made deductions from Prophetic Traditions and defended them, and suppressed those who opposed them. His grave is well known and is visited." Abū 'Abdillāh al-Ḥākim said: "He was the leader of his time in memorizing *ḥadīth* and giving *fatwas*." Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣbahānī said: "Ishāq [ibn Rāhwayh] was an associate of Aḥmad [ibn Ḥanbal]; he elevated [the status of] *ḥadīth* and reduced deviators to nothing." adh-Dhahabī said: "The great leader, the *shaykh* of the East, the master of the memorizers [of *ḥadīth*]. On account of his memory he was the leading commentator [on the Qur'ān], one of the heads of *fiqh*, and a leader in *ijtihād*."²⁴

Abū 'Isā at-Tirmidhī, after narrating a Tradition in which it is said that Allāh accepts alms (*ṣadaqah*) and takes it by His right hand, said:

More than one of the *ḥadīth* scholars has said concerning this *ḥadīth* and those like it which speak of His Attributes, and concerning the descent of Allāh, blessed be He and Exalted, every night to the lowest heaven: 'The narrations about this are confirmed, and must be believed in, but one should neither conceive nor ask the question "How?"' Similar reports are narrated from Mālik ibn Anas, Sufyān ibn 'Uyaynah, and 'Abdullāh ibn al-Mubārak, concerning these kinds of Traditions: 'Act on them without [asking]

²⁴ al-Bukhārī, *at-Tārīkh al-kabīr*, vol.1, pt.1, pp.379-80; Ibn Abī Ḥātim, *al-Jarḥ wa 't-ta'dīl*, vol.2, pp.209-10; Ibn Ḥibbān, *ath-Thiqāt*, vol.8, pp.115-6; al-Khatīb, *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.6, pp.345-55; Abū Nu'aym, *Ḥilyatu 'l-awliyā'*, vol.9, pp.234-8; al-Mazzī, *Tahdhību 'l-kamāl*, vol.2, pp.373-88; adh-Dhahabī, *Siyar al-ā'imī 'n-nubalā'*, vol.11, pp.358-82; *Tadhkiratu 'l-huffāz*, vol.2, pp.433-5; Ibn Ḥajar, *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.2, pp.216-9.

how.' And this is the opinion of the Sunnī scholars. On the other hand, the Jahmiyyah denied the validity of these *ḥadīth*, saying: 'This is anthropomorphism.'

In several places in the Holy Qur'ān, Allāh, the Mighty, the Exalted, says: 'hand', 'hearing', 'sight', and the Jahmiyyah gave a linguistic interpretation (*ta'wīl*) of these verses, and gave a different exegesis from that of the *ḥadīth* scholars, saying: 'Allāh did not create by His hand; the meaning of 'hand' here being power (*quwwah*).'

Ishāq ibn Ibrāhīm:²⁵ 'There is only anthropomorphism when one says: "A hand like [another] hand, or similar to [another] hand; or hearing like [another] hearing, or similar to [another] hearing", and when one says: "hearing like [another] hearing, or similar to [another] hearing", this is anthropomorphism. But if one says, as Allāh, the Exalted, said: "hand", "hearing", "sight", and does not ask how, and does not say: "similar to [another] hearing" or: "like [another] hearing", this is not anthropomorphism, and is like Allāh, the Exalted, saying: *There is nothing like unto Him; He is the All-hearing, the All-seeing*.²⁶

From this it is clear that at-Tirmidhī was in agreement with this latter opinion.

2. Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn Ishāq ibn Khuzaymah as-Sulamī an-Naysābūrī (223/838–311/924), of whom it was said: He was the *imām* of Naysābūr in his time, a *faqīh*, a *mujtahid*, a sea among the seas of knowledge, whose advancement in science was recognized by all people of his period; aṣ-Ṣafadī, al-Yāfi'ī, adh-Dhahabī, as-Subkī, Ibnu 'l-Jazarī, as-Suyūfī, and Ibn 'Abdī 'l-Ḥayy nicknamed him '*imām* of the *imāms*'. ad-Dār Quṭnī said: "He was an *imām* without equal." Ibn Kathīr stated: "He is one of the *mujtahids* in the religion of Islam, and they say that he

²⁵ = Ishāq ibn Rāhwayh, '*ʿAridah al-aḥwadhī*', vol.30, p.332.

²⁶ *al-Jāmi' u 'ṣ-ṣaḥīḥ: zakāt*, chap. "ṣadaqah", vol.3, pp.50-51, no.662.

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has miraculous powers (*karāmāt*)." as-Sam'ānī stated: "Many [of the Traditionists] can be traced back to him, each one of whom was spoken of as a Khuzaymī [as he was the *imām* of a Traditionist school]." This is a small sample of what was said about him.²⁷

Ibn Khuzaymah asserted that Allāh has a face. He said: "The meaning of this is not that His face is like a human face; otherwise anyone could say that humans had a face, and pigs, monkeys, and dogs, and so on, have faces, and that the faces of humans are like the faces of pigs, monkeys, and dogs . . ."²⁸

Similarly, he mentions the eye, the hand, the palm, and the right side, saying: "The eyes of Allāh are unlike any other eyes." He adds:

We say that our Lord the Creator has two eyes, by which He can see that which lies beneath the ground and under the seventh and lowest earth, and that which is in the highest heavens, and all that lies in between . . . Let us add a commentary and explanation and say: The eye of Allāh is eternal and everlasting, and its strength continues for-ever, and is never destroyed or extinguished, while the eyes of human beings come into being; they did not exist and were not created, then Allāh brought them into being and created them with His Word, which is one of His essential

²⁷ adh-Dhahabī, *Tadhkiratu 'l-ḥuffāz*, vol.2, pp.720-31, *al-'Ibar*, vol.2, p.149; as-Sam'ānī, *al-Ansāb*, vol.5, p.124; Ibnu 'l-Athīr, *al-Lubāb*, vol.1, p.442; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *al-Muntaẓam*, vol.6, pp.184-6; Ibn Kathīr, *al-Bidāyah wa 'n-nihāyah*, vol.11, p.149; as-Subkī, *Ṭabaqātu 'sh-Shāfi'iyyah*, vol.3, pp.109-19; aṣ-Ṣafādī, *al-Wāfi bi 'l-wafayāt*, vol.2, p.196; al-Yāfi'ī, *Mir'ātu 'l-jinān*, vol.2, p.264; Ibn 'Abdi 'l-Hayy, *Shadharātu 'dh-dhahab*, vol.2, pp.262-3; as-Suyūfī, *Ṭabaqātu 'l-ḥuffāz*, pp.310-1; Ibnu 'l-Jazarī, *Ṭabaqātu 'l-qurrā'*, vol.2, pp.97-98.

²⁸ *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifati 'r-rabb*, revised and commented upon by Muḥammad Khalīl Harās, teacher in the College of *Uṣūlu 'd-Dīn* (in al-Azhar), al-Azhar University Library, Cairo, 1387/1968, p.23.

attributes . . .²⁹

He states that Allāh has two hands: 'His two eternal hands are everlasting, while created hands come into being . . . What a comparison!'³⁰ Interpretation is excluded from all this, especially the interpretation of His hands as Favour and Power.³¹

He mentions that:

The speech of our Lord does not resemble the speech of created beings, because the speech of Allāh is unbroken, uninterrupted by a pause or mannerism, unlike the words of humans, which are broken by mannerisms and silences due to pauses [for breath], or reflection, or fatigue . . .³²

3. 'Uthmān ibn Sa'īd, Abū Sa'īd ad-Dārimī, at-Tamīmī, as-Sijistānī (c 199/815–280/894), al-Imām al-Hāfiẓ al-Ḥujjah, a thorn in the flesh of the heretics, an upholder of the *sunnah*, trustworthy, established, an authority. It is said of him: He was an *imām* who was emulated during his life and after his death. The Shāfi'īs mentioned him in their biographies, and the Ḥanbalīs count him among the followers of Ibn Ḥanbal.³³

ad-Dārimī stated that Allāh has a place (*makān*), which he demarcated as the throne (*al-'arsh*),³⁴ and that He is clearly visible to His creation, above His throne in the atmosphere of the Afterlife, where there is no other creature, and no sky above Him.³⁵ He said:

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp.50-55.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp.82-85.

³¹ *Ibid.*, pp.85-88.

³² *Ibid.*, p.145.

³³ *Tadhkiratu 'l-ḥuffāz*, vol.2, pp.621-2; *al-'Ibar*, vol.2, p.64; *Mir'ātu 'l-jinān*, vol.2, p.193; Ibn Kathīr, vol.11, p.69; *Ṭabaqātu 'sh-Shāfi'iyyah*, vol.2, pp.302-6; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-ḥuffāz*, p.274; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Hanābilah*, vol.1, p.221.

³⁴ *ar-Radd 'alā Bishr al-Marrīsī*, *'Aqā'id as-salaf*, published by Dr 'Alī Sāmī an-Nashshār, 'Ammār Jam'ī aṭ-Ṭālibī; Munsha'atu 'l-Ma'ārif, Alexandria, Egypt, 1971, p.382.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p.439.

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We have specified a single place for Him, the highest, purest, and most noble place: His mighty throne . . . above the seventh, highest heaven, where there are no men or jinn, no smoke, no toilet, and no devil. You [Bishr al-Marrīsī]³⁶, along with the rest of your misguided colleagues, claim that He is in every place, in smoke, in the toilet, and next to every man and jinn! Is it you who anthropomorphize Him, when you speak of incarnation in places, or us?³⁷

He said:

If Allāh did not have hands with which to create Adam and touch him as you claimed, then it would not be possible to say [of Allāh]: by Your gracious hand.³⁸

Thus he ignored all meaning or explanation relating to Favour or Power, save for the two hands [for which there is a meaning, since they are the organs dedicated to sensation].³⁹

Truly Allāh has two fingers . . . and two legs; there is no other interpretation.⁴⁰

Although we do say, as Allāh states: *The face of thy Lord remains* (ar-Raḥmān, 55:27). By this He meant the face that is turned towards the believers, and not good works, or the *qiblah* . . .⁴¹

The refutation of anthropomorphism is rather that Allāh possesses all these, but that they are not analogous to created things.⁴²

³⁶ i.e., Bishr ibn Ghiyāth al-Marrīsī, al-Baghdādī, al-Ḥanafī (c 138/755–218/833), the scholar who proclaimed and defended the theory that the Qur'ān was created, along with other Mu'tazilī ideas, whom ad-Dārimī is refuting.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p.454.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p.387.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p.398.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, pp.420, 423-4, 427-8.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p.516.

⁴² *Ibid.*, p.432-3, 508.

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I have cited the above as specific examples of what has been stated about the non-Imāmī Traditionist school, and I shall not add anything to them, except what I consider necessary to note – in a very brief manner – regarding the intention of corporealism and anthropomorphism which is refuted of Allāh, and which certain proofs have refuted. The real meaning of the doctrine of corporealism or what underpins it, such as limbs or bodily extremities, locality, and time, requires the comparison of Allāh with created beings; anthropomorphism lies at the root of corporealism and its consequences, not in its typology or particularities. The doctrine that Allāh has a head or a stomach, for example – may Allāh be raised above such things – requires corporealism, and leads in the end to Allāh being comparable with created beings. Either His head or stomach are comparable to created heads or stomachs, or they do not resemble any of these heads or stomachs and are rather distinguished as a head which does not resemble any other, and a stomach which does not resemble any other, and so on for other things besides the head and the stomach.

With respect to the *ḥadīth* which they pass on and maintain as true (the sources will be mentioned), 'Allāh created Adam in His own image', according to those who explain it as the image of Allāh, and another *ḥadīth*, that Adam was created in the image of the Merciful (*ar-Raḥmān*), these do not refer to the belief that Allāh has an image or a face, and that is all, but [to the belief] that His image and His face resemble the face and image of Adam and resemble man's face and the image of him.

12

**COMPARISON OF THE IMĀMĪ AND
NON-IMĀMĪ SCHOOLS**

For a comparison between the above and that which is as-

sociated with the Imāmiyyah, the reader can refer to what I have written about the Imāmī Traditionists in what I have said concerning aṣ-Ṣadūq and *al-I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* and his connection with al-Mufid and *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-i'tiqād*. What follows is a discussion of the *Hishāmāyn*, [i.e.] Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and Hishām ibn Sālim, who were accused of corporealism and anthropomorphism. As for others besides them, and those whose names are mentioned alongside them, I do not deny that there were among the Imāmiyyah those who spoke of determinism (*jabr*) and anthropomorphism, or who were accused of it, but these were very few. It is natural, with respect to all sects, and in all intellectual and religious communities, for a member or members to deviate, to stand apart with ideas and convictions, which are at odds with the group they originate from. To judge the group itself by way of judgements drawn from the stance of these few is incorrect, unless they form the majority, or are prominent or predominate to the extent that they become representative of their sect, and a model for them.

Another example which underscores what I have said comes from a study of the commentaries on *al-Kāfi* in what concerns the *ḥadīth* on Unicity in *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*. Of the many commentaries of *al-Kāfi* there are four, all in print, by four contemporaneous scholars. They are:-

1. Ṣadru 'd-Dīn, Muḥammad ibn Ibrāhīm ibn Yaḥyā al-Qawāmī, ash-Shīrāzī, Ṣadru 'l-Muta'allihīn (979/1571–1050/1640): *Sharḥu 'l-Kāfi*, dealing with what is contained in the first part of the *Kitābu 'l-Ḥujjah* in the *Uṣūlu 'l-Kāfi*.
2. Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ ibn Aḥmad al-Māzandarānī (d. 1086/1675), the famous scholar and Traditionist: *Sharḥ Uṣūlu 'l-Kāfi wa 'r-Rawḍah*.
3. al-Fayḍ al-Kāshānī, Muḥammad Muḥsin (1010/1599–1091/1690), in his comments on the *ḥadīth* of *al-Kāfi* on Unicity in his book *al-Wāfi*.

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4. al-‘Allāmah al-Majlisī, Muḥammad Bāqir ibn Muḥammad Taqī (1037/1628–1110/1699): *Mir’ātu ‘l-‘uqūl*, which comments extensively on *al-Kāfi*.

These four differ with respect to their intellectual orientations, their knowledge of the sciences, and their specialization in its branches. Among them, one was considered an outstanding authority in Islamic philosophy, the master of one of its most famous schools, i.e., Ṣadru ‘l-Muta‘allihīn. Another was among those who stood between philosophy, *fiqh*, and *ḥadīth*, i.e., al-Fayḍ, and the two others were largely concerned with *ḥadīth* and its sciences, i.e., al-Majlisī and his brother-in-law al-Māzandarānī. A study of their commentaries and their concurrence on *ḥadīth* transmitted from the Imāms of the *Ahlu ‘l-Bayt*, peace be upon them, concerning Unicity and Justice should provide us with the strongest evidence for what I have stated about the Imāmiyyah: that whatever the differences in their approaches their opinions about that which related to the fundamentals of the faith did not differ.

At the most basic level, the fundamental reason for this goes back to the nature of the Imāmī *ḥadīth* itself, and the fact that they differ from non-Imāmī *ḥadīth*. The *ḥadīth* related by non-Imāmī sects – and I have listed the names of the books which refer to these *ḥadīth*, and which treat of their explanations, and of the interpretations of those which require interpretation – do not contain a trace of anything that refutes corporealism, anthropomorphism, or determinism, while at the same time they abound in *ḥadīth* which on the surface support corporealism, anthropomorphism, and determinism. The interpreters could not find reliable *ḥadīth* which explicitly refute anthropomorphism, thus enabling them to solve the problem by explicating *ḥadīth* with *ḥadīth* or by interpreting what appears to affirm it through that which textually negates it, so they were compelled to take refuge in other methods of interpretation.

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This is clearly apparent in the works of Ibn Fūrak, al-Khaṭṭābī, and al-Bayhaqī – mentioned above – and also in what was written by Abu 'l-Ma'ālī al-Juwaynī, 'Abdu 'l-Malik ibn 'Abdillāh an-Naysābūrī ash-Shāfi'ī (419/1028–478/1085), the famous Ash'arī theologian, in his books on theology, and Fakhru 'd-Dīn ar-Rāzī, Muḥammad ibn 'Umar ash-Shāfi'ī (544/1150–606/1210), the *imām* of the theologians, the well-known Ash'arī commentator, in his famous Commentary on the Holy Qur'ān and in his books on theology. It is also evident in the interpretations of Ibnu 'l-Jawzī and Taqīyyu 'd-Dīn al-Ḥiṣnī, in their two books on religion mentioned previously. A study of these interpretations should provide the strongest proof of what we have said.

The situation with Imāmī *ḥadīth* was the opposite of this. The *ḥadīth* on Unicity are cited in the *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd* in al-Kulaynī's *al-Kāfi*, the Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq's *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*, and the *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd wa 'l-'adl* from the well-known encyclopaedia of *ḥadīth*, the 'Allāmah al-Majlisī's *Bihāru 'l-anwār*. The latter contains all that was passed down in the Imāmī sources, whether it was firmly established or incompletely transmitted, whether its chain of authority was correct or incorrect, and is to be found in the modern edition in six sections (vols.3-8). Whoever refers to them will find them without equal, for they are replete with sound *ḥadīth*, one after the other, complete, and meaningful, which clearly prove the refutation of anthropomorphism, corporealism, and determinism, and which specifically prove the majority of what the Imāmiyyah believe regarding Unicity and Justice, along with that which they share with other Muslims. For this reason, al-Kulaynī and aṣ-Ṣadūq did not find any difficulty in demonstrating the falsity of these doctrines, except in the fact that they had to choose from an enormous number of *ḥadīth*, which plainly and clearly demonstrated it.

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On top of all this, there is what the Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq pointed out in the opening of the *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*, when he said:

What led me to write my book was that I found people among those who opposed us attributing the doctrines of anthropomorphism and determinism to our group, since they found information in their books of whose explanation they were ignorant or whose meaning they did not understand, and which they took out of context and failed to compare word by word with the Qur'ān [to see if it concurred with the holy Qur'ān in word and meaning, for if the holy Qur'ān substantiated anthropomorphism and determinism, then it was proof, and if they did not speak of a proof for this in the Qur'ān why did they speak of its proof in *ḥadīth*]. In this way they denounced our school before the ignorant, obscured our path for them, diverted people from the religion of Allāh, and prompted them to reject the proofs of Allāh. I have sought favour with Allāh in writing this book on Unicity and on the refutation of anthropomorphism and determinism . . .⁴³

The essence of the discussion is that the Imāmiyyah studied their beliefs in light of the *ḥadīth* passed down from the Imāms, peace be upon them, and that this study clearly revealed that what they believed derived from these *ḥadīth*, and that the contents of the *ḥadīth* were consistent whether they had been narrated on the authority of the first Imām, the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, or from the eleventh Imām, or the Awaited Proof, peace be upon them, for example. The reason for this is that after having professed belief in the Imāmate and sworn obedience to the Imāms, peace be upon them, as I previously noted regarding the meaning of the Imāmate among the Imāmiyyah, they took their beliefs from them, just as they took their laws. A study of the two books *I'tiqādātu 'l-*

⁴³ *at-Tawḥīd*, Maktabatu 's-Ṣadūq, Tehran, 1387, p.17-18.

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Imāmiyyah by aṣ-Ṣadūq and *Taṣhīḥu 'l-i'tiqād* by al-Mufīd suffices to uphold this view, especially since aṣ-Ṣadūq's book is no more than a compilation of the contents of *ḥadīth* and Qur'ānic verses employing the same words and phrases as we have mentioned previously.

I shall not dwell on the idea that the Imāmiyyah drew on the Mu'tazilah and were influenced by them in the beliefs they concurred upon except to say that it is a baseless falsehood without a speck of truth in it, and without any support from the study of the beliefs of the Imāmiyyah and the foundations upon which these beliefs are based. The question, which deserves attention, is whether anyone apart from the Imāmiyyah took their beliefs from the Imāms. I shall not attempt to look into this aspect here; it is enough to point out that al-Ka'bī al-Balkhī, the Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār, Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, and Nashwān al-Ḥimyarī trace the origin of the Mu'tazilah School, with respect to Justice and Unicity, to the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him.⁴⁴

adh-Dhahabī said: "Zurqān [the famous Mu'tazilī *mutakal-lim*] said: 'Abu 'l-Hudhayl al-'Allāf narrated to us: "I have taken what I believe concerning Justice and Oneness from 'Uthmān aṭ-Ṭawīl, and he informed me that he took it from Wāṣil ibn 'Aṭā', who took it from 'Abdullāh ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥanafīyyah, who took it from his father, who took it from his father 'Alī, who took it from the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant [them] peace, who narrated that Gabriel came down with it from Allāh, the Sublime.'" Several people have narrated this from Zurqān."⁴⁵

⁴⁴ al-Balkhī, *Dhikru 'l-Mu'tazilah*, p.64; al-Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār, *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl wa dhikru 'l-Mu'tazilah*, pp.146-7, 150, 163, 214-5; Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, pp.26-27, 125-8; *al-Baḥru 'z-zakḥkhār*, vol.1, p.44; Nashwān al-Ḥimyarī, *Hūru 'l-'īyn*, p.206.

⁴⁵ *Siyar a'lāmi 'n-nubalā'*, vol.13, p.149.

It must be pointed out that if something is found in *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* which al-Mufīd did not comment on or which he affirmed, which he objected to or did not accept, or with the proof of which, as given by aṣ-Ṣadūq, he was not satisfied, it is not consequently established that other Imāmī scholars agreed with either or both of them, deemed their proofs correct, agreed with the demonstrations of their opinions, or accepted al-Mufīd's objections. Naturally, this aspect of the two books is restricted to the details of what is mentioned in them, not to the fundamental beliefs, which all the Imāmiyyah are agreed upon.

13

THE NATURE OF IMĀMĪ TRADITIONS REJECTS CORPOREALISM AND ANTHROPOMORPHISM

One example, which I shall cite, of the hundreds of examples, which demonstrate the nature of Imāmī *ḥadīth* and their insistence that no inclination towards corporealism and anthropomorphism or determinism should find a place in the soul of anyone who believes in them, is what was narrated on the authority of the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, in the words of one of his famous speeches.

This is the speech mentioned by ash-Sharīf ar-Raḍī, Abu 'l-Ḥasan Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn al-Mūsawī (359/970–406/1015) in *Nahju 'l-Balāghah*, and which was narrated by the Imāmī Traditionists who came before him. The Shaykh aṣ-Ṣadūq (c 306/919–381/991) transmitted, and partially commented upon, a large section from the beginning of this sermon in his *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*,⁴⁶ though this differs somewhat in wording from the versions in *Nahju 'l-Balāghah*, and *al-Biḥār*.⁴⁷

⁴⁶ Maktabatu 's-Ṣadūq, Tehran, 1387, pp.48-56.

⁴⁷ Vol.4, pp.274-84.

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Abu 'n-Naḍr Muḥammad ibn Mas'ūd as-Sulamī al-'Ayyāshī (d. c 320/932) also narrated it, and extracted a portion of it in his *Tafsīr*,⁴⁸ and this is narrated in *al-Biḥār*,⁴⁹ and in the *Tafsīru 'l-burhān*.⁵⁰ All of them traced the chain of authority from themselves back to Mas'adah ibn Ṣadaqah, who narrated it on the authority of the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, and on the authority of his father, peace be upon them both. This person is Abū Muḥammad, Mas'adah ibn Ṣadaqah al-'Abdī, a follower of aṣ-Ṣādiq and al-Kāẓim, peace be upon them both, who wrote *Kitāb Khuṭab Amīr al-Mu'minīn 'alayhi 's-salām*.⁵¹ Zaydī Traditionists such as Yaḥyā ibn al-Ḥusayn al-Ḥasanī, an-Nāṭiq bi 'l-Ḥaqq, the Zaydī *imām* (340/952–424/1033), narrated it with another chain of authority ending with Zayd ibn Aslam,⁵² who narrated it directly from the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him. His wording is close to that of aṣ-Ṣadūq, although the chain of authority differs. The author of *Taysīru 'l-maṭālib fī amāli 'l-Imām Abī Ṭālib*⁵³ cites a large portion of it, as does Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn 'Abd Rabbih al-Qurṭubī al-Mālīkī (246/860–328/940) in his *al-'Iqdu 'l-farīd*.⁵⁴

The Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him,

⁴⁸ Vol.1, p.163, no.5.

⁴⁹ Vol.3, p.257.

⁵⁰ Vol.1, p.271, no.12.

⁵¹ an-Najāshī, p.259, *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.87; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.7, p.191, no.972.

⁵² This would appear to be a scribal error, the true person being Zayd ibn Wahb al-Jahni (d. 96/715), one of the greatest of the Followers of the Companions of the Prophet, and one of the followers of the Imām 'Alī, who wrote a *Kitāb Khuṭab Amīr al-Mu'minīn 'alayhi 's-salām 'ala 'l-manābir fī 'l-jum'ah wa 'l-a'yād wa ghayrihā*; see at-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.97; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.44; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.3, p.85; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.7, p.189, no.965.

⁵³ Mu'assasat al-A'lamī, Beirut, Lebanon, 1395/1975, pp.202-4.

⁵⁴ Board of Writing, Translation, and Publication, Cairo, 2nd ed., 1381/ 1962, vol.4, pp.152-4.

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delivered this sermon from the pulpit in Kūfah. A man said to him, while he was speaking: "Describe our Lord as we will see Him with our eyes . . ." and he became angry with him and summoned the community to prayer; and the people collected about him until the mosque was packed with his followers, and he said, among other things (according to the narration of ash-Sharīf ar-Raḍī):

I bear witness that whoever makes a likeness for You out of the disparate limbs of Your creation and the connection of the sockets of their joints which you have clothed in Your wisdom has not fixed the innermost part of his mind on knowledge of You, nor has certainty informed his heart that there is no equal to You. It is as if he had not heard the followers absolving themselves from those they [falsely] follow, saying: *By Allāh, we were in manifest error when we made you equal with the Lord of the worlds* (ash-Shu‘arā’, 26:97-98). The transgressors falsify You when they liken You to their idols, attribute to You with their imaginations the adornment of created things, divide You up in their minds according to the partition of bodies, and judge You by analogy with natural constitutions and their various powers through the talents of their intellects. I bear witness that whoever equates You with a thing of Your creation has put You on the same level with it, and that whoever does so is a disbeliever, according to that which has been revealed through the unambiguous among Your verses and that which the evidence of Your clear proof pronounces. For truly You are Allāh Who cannot be confined to the mind so as to be brought into conformity with the vicissitudes of its thinking, nor to the deliberation of its mental operations to be limited and subject to whims.⁵⁵

⁵⁵ *Nahju 'l-Balāghah*, the commentary of Muḥammad ‘Abduh and Muḥammad Muhyi 'd-Dīn ‘Abdu 'l-Ḥamid, al-Istiqāmah Press, Cairo, vol.1, pp.

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I do not wish to comment on this section of the sermon, in which the Imām pointed out the reasons for the occurrence of anthropomorphism and corporealism among the Imāmiyyah in its early days, 'when they liken You to their idols . . .' However, I will say that someone who believes that these words, and others from the *ḥadīth* of the *Ahlu 'l-Bayt*, are from an infallible Imām who commands an obedience not unlike that of the Messenger of Allāh, peace be upon him and his progeny, (and I have already demonstrated the belief of the Imāmiyyah in the Imāmate and the Imām) would hardly be naturally inclined (except in abnormal circumstances) to speak about anthropomorphism or corporealism except in an unknowing way. The Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār al-Mu'tazilī ash-Shāfi'ī said:

As for the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, his sermons declaring the refutation of anthropomorphism and upholding Justice are more than can be counted . . .⁵⁶

He also stated:

If you look at the sermons of the Commander of the Faithful, you will find them replete with refutations of the visibility of Allāh.⁵⁷

14

ANTI-IMĀMĪ SCHOLARS REVERSE THE REALITY

Whatever the case may be, the accusation was raised against the Imāmiyyah by their adversaries that the Imāmiyyah, in their formative days and during the times that immediately followed, limited themselves and their beliefs within the literally prescribed boundaries of the Holy Qur'ān and the *Sunnah*, and did

163-4; see also *al-Biḥār*, vol.77, p.318, and the commentary of Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.6, pp.413-5.

⁵⁶ *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl wa dhikru 'l-Mu'tazilah*, p.163.

⁵⁷ *Sharḥu 'l-uṣūli 'l-khamsah*, p.268.

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not cross over into intellectual fields by relying on reason as a basis for explaining the faith and its directives, or resorting to it in demonstrating the truth, rejecting the objections of its enemies, and showing the falsity of their proofs.

However, the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah did not stop at that; rather, they went on to accuse the Imāmiyyah of being, before their joining the Mu'tazilah:

1. Clear proponents of anthropomorphism and corporealism;
2. Not upholders of Justice as a religious principle having special attributes and requirements;
3. Unaware of the precise differences and theoretical discussions pertaining to Unicity and Justice – which I pointed out in a general way during the discussion about the beliefs of the Imāmiyyah – and unaware of the difference between Attributes of Essence and Attributes of Action, for example, since they had not yet resorted to intellectual investigations which lead to the clarification of these critical fundamentals and the establishment of these particulars;
4. And upholders, even fierce upholders, of predestination.

Abu 'l-Ḥusayn al-Khayyāṭ al-Mu'tazilī stated:

As for the totality of the teaching of the Rāfiḍah, it is: that Allāh has a physique, an image, and a limit; He is in motion and at rest, draws near and moves away, is lightened and weighed down . . . This is Rāfiḍī Unicity in its entirety, save for a small group of them who associated with the Mu'tazilah and believed in Unicity, . . . and these the Rāfiḍah expelled and washed their hands of. As for their *shaykhs*, like Hishām ibn Sālim, Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, 'Alī ibn Maytham, Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, 'Alī ibn Manṣūr, and as-Sakkāk, their belief is what I have related concerning them.⁵⁸

McDermott says, on the authority of Ibn Taymiyyah, that the

⁵⁸ *al-Intiṣār wa 'r-radd 'alā Ibnu 'r-Rawandī al-mulḥid*, p.14.

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doctrine of Divine Justice was taken up by the later writers of the Imāmiyyah, like al-Mufīd (336/948–413/1022), al-Mūsawī (ash-Sharīf al-Murtaḍā [355/966–436/1044]), and al-Karājikī (c 369/980–449/1057), and had little influence on their predecessors in the Imāmiyyah. On this basis, McDermott maintains that al-Khayyāṭ points to the presence of a minority connected with the Mu'tazilah and influenced by their beliefs, just as al-Ash'arī mentions in his writings. McDermott gives the Nawbakhtiyyīn, who existed around the end of the third century (the beginning of the tenth century AD) as an example.⁵⁹

al-Mufīd was heir to a double legacy: that of the early Imāmite theologians – notably the Nawbakhtīs, who were in contact with Mu'tazilite thought from the latter part of the third century of the Hijrah, and the traditionist school of Qum represented by Ibn Bābūyah al-Qummī [aṣ-Ṣadūq].⁶⁰

But a disciple of Ibn Taymiyyah, Shamsu 'd-Dīn adh-Dhahabī (673/1274–748/1348) anticipated what his colleague narrated, and said:

Since the end of the year 370 [980] up to our own time the Rāfiḍah and the Mu'tazilah have befriended each other like brothers.⁶¹

However Ibn Ḥajar al-'Asqalānī does not accept this definition of history, and states:

It is not as he says, but rather they ceased being brothers from the time of al-Ma'mūn (the 'Abbāsīd caliph [170/786 – caliph 198/813 – d. 218/833]),⁶²

I shall pass over all these remarks, and concern myself only with the examination of what they are founded upon. It all goes

⁵⁹ *The Theology of ash-Shaikh al-Mufīd*, pp.2-3.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, p.395.

⁶¹ *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.3, p.149.

⁶² *Lisānu 'l-mizān*, vol.4, p.248.

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back to what these adversaries related on the authority of some of the Imāmī scholars, and the predecessors of their Traditionists and theologians, like those al-Khayyāṭ names, concerning the doctrine of blatant corporealism and anthropomorphism, and how they wound up on the brink of idiocy and obscenity.

In doing so I am motivated by the endeavour to uncover the truth, and more importantly, by my belief in Islam and what it enjoins upon faithful Muslims who heed words when they are spoken, who listen to all sides of the story and then pick the best, who judge fairly and without personal bias, who speak the truth even when it goes against them, and adhere to the word of Allāh: *O you who believe! Be steadfast witnesses to Allāh in equity, and do not allow hatred for any people to seduce you, and cause you to act unjustly. Act justly, for that is closer to your duty. Be dutiful to Allāh, for Allāh is informed of what you do* (al-Mdāidah, 5:8). Faithful to all this, I shall examine some of these charges in a general way via a study restricted to the two Hishāms, Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and Hishām ibn Sālim. I shall not venture beyond them, and on the results of this inquiry about them judge others who are like them.

* * * * *

Before beginning, however, I shall summarize the main points:

- i) By its very nature, Imāmī *ḥadīth* can only accept that those who believe in them must follow those propositions upon which the Imāmiyyah are generally agreed, and the later Imāmiyyah were here only following previous generations. These generally agreed positions have been previously pointed out in summary form.
- ii) Unlike the situation with the Imāmiyyah, there occurred a split among the non-Imāmīs into those who submitted to the *ḥadīth* which reached them, and who accepted them without any commentary or interpretation, and out of which those who were

called the *muḥaddithūn* developed; and into those who did not accept them absolutely, such as the Mu‘tazilah, whether we accept the accusation by their opponents that they were unbelievers in the *sunnah*, or accept that, as they themselves said, they were unbelievers in those *ḥadīth* that were fabricated – because they did not accord with their beliefs – and that they interpreted other *ḥadīth* to accord with their beliefs. Between these two camps there arose a bitter controversy, with accusations of heresy and going beyond the bounds of religion, even sometimes reaching physical confrontation. However, this kind of dispute never arose among the Imāmiyyah at all, not even to the smallest degree. This has already been attributed to the fact that Imāmī *ḥadīth* did not give rise to such splits, and clearly demonstrated Imāmī beliefs so that such a split could not occur.

iii) We have already pointed out that the *kalām* school among the non-Imāmīs is really represented by the Mu‘tazilites, not the Ash‘arites. Investigation reveals that the latter had as their aim to harmonize the intellectual procedures of the Mu‘tazilī school with the beliefs of the *muḥaddithūn*. They did have recourse to investigation, though this was not a position sanctioned by their *ḥadīth*, and they found nothing in the *sunnah* to authorize their interpretation and which could support their claim to be interpreting the *sunnah* by the *sunnah*. They were obliged not to reject the *sunnah* so that they would not be accused of depending solely on interpretation as the Mu‘tazilah were.

iv) The Imāmiyyah did not blindly follow the Mu‘tazilah in those opinions on which they agreed, but were only following their Imāms in these beliefs. The Imāms preceded the Mu‘tazilah both historically and in status, and so one cannot say that they were taught by them.

v) The Mu‘tazilah themselves agreed that they took their basic positions – *tawḥīd* and *‘aql* – from Amīr al-Mu‘minīn, ‘Alī ibn

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Abī Ṭālib, peace be upon him, through *isnād* which were trustworthy for them; and 'Alī, peace be upon him, was the first of the Shī'ī Imāms. The Imāmiyyah paid more attention to the evidence of his teachings than did the Mu'tazilah, and we have already given an example of this. So, if it is incorrect to say that the Mu'tazilah borrowed from the Imāmiyyah, surely it is, in fact, all the more incorrect to say that the Imāmiyyah borrowed from them.

15

HISHĀM IBN AL-ḤAKAM:
SOME ASPECTS OF HIS PERSONALITY

Abū Muḥammad, Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam al-Kindī (their client) al-Kūfī, then al-Baghdādī (c 105/723–189/805), *shaykh* of the Imāmī theologians and their leader, was born in Kūfah, and grew up in Wāsiṭ – both cities in Iraq – and then returned to Kūfah and lived there. He had a business there, and one in Baghdad, and then he moved to Baghdad in the year 179/796, and lived there without interruption. Hishām met the Imāms aṣ-Ṣādiq and al-Kāẓim, peace be upon them, and outlived al-Kāẓim, but was unable to meet ar-Riḍā, peace be upon them. The scholars of the Imāmiyyah said of him: "He was a trustworthy source of *ḥadīth*, of excellent scholarship in his school, a *faqīh*, and a theologian, . . . well versed in the art of theology, ready to answer. Praises of him are related on the authority of the Imāms aṣ-Ṣādiq, al-Kāẓim, ar-Riḍā, and al-Jawād, peace be upon them, . . . and they extolled him with abundant commendations."⁶³ Ibnu 'n-Nadīm described him similarly.⁶⁴

⁶³ al-Mufīd, *al-Fuṣūlu 'l-mukhtārah*, vol.1, p.28; aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, pp.203-4; an-Najāshī, pp.304-5; Ibn Shahrāshūb, *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; al-'Allāmah al-Ḥillī, *Khulāṣatu 'l-aqwāl*, p.178; and concerning the authority

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The Shaykh al-Mufīd said: "Of his rank and stature, it was reported by Abū 'Abdillāh Ja'far ibn Muḥammad, peace be upon them, that he came to him in Minā while he was a boy, his beard just beginning to grow. There were Shī'ī *shaykhs* like Ḥumrān ibn A'yan, Qays al-Māṣir, Yūnus ibn Ya'qūb, Abū Ja'far al-Aḥwal [Mu'minu 't-Tāq], and Hishām ibn Sālim in his company, and he elevated him above all of them. All the others were older than him, and when Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, noticed what he had done was unbearable to his follow-ers, he said: 'He assists us with his heart, his tongue, and his hand.'" ⁶⁵

Ibn Shahrāshūb states the equivalent and adds:

[aṣ-Ṣādiq], peace be upon him, said: 'Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam is a pioneer of our truth, the driving force of our doctrine, the bulwark of our sincerity, the defender against the falsehood of our enemies; he who follows him follows us, and he who is opposed to him and deviates from him is our enemy and deviates from us.' ⁶⁶

Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam was a theologian, strong in theology, proficient in argument and debate, quick-witted, with a strong memory, a deep knowledge, extensive education, multi-faceted, highly active and a competitor in debate. He was in contact with all those who developed opinions and were theologians of Muslim and non-Muslim sects; he argued with them, discussed with them, and moreover, befriended them, to the point where he set an example with his friendship and friendliness towards whoever befriended him, even if their views were opposed to his.

of all those who wrote biographies of him, see: *Mu'jam rijāli 'l-ḥadīth*, vol.19, p.331.

⁶⁴ *al-Fihrist*, pp.203-4.

⁶⁵ *al-Fuṣūlu 'l-mukhtārah*, vol.1, p.28; *al-Biḥār*, vol.10, pp.295-6; see the *ḥadīth* in *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, pp.171-3, nos.433/4, and in many other sources of *ḥadīth*.

⁶⁶ *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; *Mu'jam rijāli 'l-ḥadīth*, vol.19, p.334.

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This aspect of the character of Hishām is of vital importance in understanding his personality. One of the people he befriended, and for whom his friendship set an example, was ‘Abdullāh ibn Yazīd al-Fazārī al-Kūfī, the Ibāḍī theologian. He and his followers were of the Khārijī sect, which came closest to the Ahlu's-Sunnah.⁶⁷ The Ibāḍiyyah were a Khārijī sect who took their teachings from them.⁶⁸ He was one of the greatest Khārijī theologians and writers; they cite his books as: *Kitābu 't-Tawhīd*, *Kitāb 'ala 'l-Mu'tazilah*, and *Kitābu 'r-radd 'ala 'r-Rāfiḍah*.⁶⁹

‘Abdullāh ibn Yazīd al-Ibāḍī was one of the best friends of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, and was a business partner with him.⁷⁰

al-Jāhiz makes them out to have been the best of opponents, between whom there was no severity, no harshness, and no enmity, . . . and they ended up as companions after associating and sharing company . . . They were improved in their adversity by what came of their cooperation in all their trading.⁷¹

‘Abdullāh ibn Yazīd al-Ibāḍī was in Kūfah, where his companions debated with him and learned from him. He was a cobbler in partnership with Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, who was his senior . . . and his Rāfiḍī companions debated with him and learned from him. Both of them were in the same shop, as we say of opposition in schools of at-Tasharrī [the belief of ash-Shurāt, i.e. the Khawārij] and ar-Rafḍ. There never passed between them any abuse or offense, as knowledge, the judgement of reason, the requirements of the religious law, and the

⁶⁷ Ibn Ḥazm, *al-Fiṣal*, vol.2, p.112.

⁶⁸ Ibn Ḥajar, *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.3, p.378.

⁶⁹ al-Ash‘arī, *Maqālatu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.186; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, p.233; ash-Shahrīstānī, *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.137; al-Baghdādī, *Hadiyyatu 'l-‘arīfīn*, vol.1, p.446.

⁷⁰ *Kamālu 'd-dīn*, vol.2, p.363; *al-Bihār*, vol.48, p.198.

⁷¹ al-Jāhiz, *al-Bayān wa 't-tabyīn*, vol.1, pp.46-47; ar-Rāghib, *Muḥāḍarātu 'l-udabā'*, vol.2, p.7.

rules of debate and procedure require.⁷²

This special characteristic of Hisham induced most of those who differed with him in belief to associate with him immediately, since those connected with him were not exposed to dangers, nor did they fear any discourtesy or betrayal from him, or any infringement of companionable behaviour or the proprieties of debate. Ibn Qutaybah relates:

A heretic came to Hishām, and said to him: 'I will say two things: I am aware of your impartiality and I am not afraid of your dissention.' Then he began to dispute with him, and Hishām interrupted him quickly, and gave him a satisfactory answer.⁷³

What we have presented about the character of Hishām demands that we reinterpret the relationship of Abū Shākir ad-Dayṣānī – a renowned atheist – with Hishām to one of friendship and companionship between them based on a relationship of controversy, inquiry, and discussion of their differences of opinion and belief. Perhaps Abū Shākir asked him to seek permission for him to visit the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him,⁷⁴ and perhaps they quarrelled, and the discussion wound up at a point where Hishām no longer had an answer, as Hishām tells us, when he says that he met with aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, in Madīnah, and learnt the answer from him, and then met Abū Shākir in Kūfah and told it to him, and the latter said: "This came from the Hijāz."⁷⁵

Nevertheless, this high character was transformed by his adversaries into slander and defamation. al-Khayyāt says, in reply to those who accused the Mu'tazilah of taking some of their ideas from ad-Dayṣānī:

⁷² *Murūju 'dh-dhahab*, Paris offset, vol.5, pp.443-11.

⁷³ *Uyūnu 'l-akhbār*, vol.2, p.154.

⁷⁴ *at-Tawhīd*, p.290; *al-Bihār*, vol.3, p.50.

⁷⁵ *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, pp.128-9, nos.266/9; *at-Tawhīd*, p.133.

Rather, the one accused of the doctrine of the Daysāniyah is the *shaykh* of the Rāfiḍah, their scholar, Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, a known companion of Abū Shākīr ad-Daysānī

⁷⁶

16

HIS THEOLOGICAL PERSONALITY AND INTELLECTUAL ACTIVITIES

Hishām's connections with theologians and leaders of sects increased after he took over leadership of the Barmakid debating group. After the caliph Hārūn arrested the Imām Mūsā ibn Ja'far in the year 179/795, Hishām was forced to emigrate to Baghdad for an indefinite time and to take refuge with Yaḥyā ibn Khālīd al-Barmakī (120/738–190/805), the famous 'Abbāsīd minister, and seek his protection. He eventually became, as the biographers state, 'devoted to Yaḥyā ibn Khālīd al-Barmakī, and led his sessions in theology and inquiry.'⁷⁷

Yaḥyā ibn Khālīd had a *majlis* in his home, which was attended by theologians from all the religious sects and creeds on Sunday, and they argued with one another about their beliefs, and raised objections against each other.⁷⁸

It was natural that this theological debating group, which convened weekly in the presence of the most powerful man in the state after the Caliph, should have been organized and presided over by Hishām. This is the meaning of their statement 'and he led his sessions in theology and inquiry.' It enabled him to come into contact with the majority of those whose normal circumstances would not have permitted them to meet a

⁷⁶ *al-Intiṣār wa 'r-radd 'alā Ibnī 'r-Rawandī al-mulḥid*, p.37.

⁷⁷ aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.204; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, pp.223, 224; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.233; *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.6, p.194.

⁷⁸ *Kamālu 'd-dīn*, vol.2, p.362; *al-Biḥār*, vol.48, p.179.

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distinguished theologian like Hishām, who would listen to their views and arguments, let them debate with one another, and then supervise the procedure of inquiry, and evaluate the arguments and give the correct view. al-Mas'ūdī tells of one such session:

Yaḥyā ibn Khālid ibn Barmak, a man of knowledge and discernment, and upholder of discussion and the giving of opinion, used to bring together many discussants and holders of opinion from the *mutakallims* of Islam and other thinkers and sectarians. Yaḥyā said to them one day when they had gathered at his house: 'You have had many discussions about latency (*kumūn*), manifestation (*ẓuhūr*), and eternity and beginning in time (*al-qadam wa 'l-ḥudūth*), refutation and assertion, motion and rest, conjunction and separation, existence and non-existence, bodies and accidents (*jism wa 'araḍ*), confirming and refuting, denying and affirming God's attributes, capacity and action, substance, quantity, quality, relation, generation and corruption. [You have discussed] whether the Imāmate is by divine delegation (*naṣṣ*) or by election (*ikhṭiyār*), and the rest of the things brought up in *kalām* in its principles and derived matters. So now start your discussions about love.'

There are similar descriptions of many subjects of discussion, and then Mas'ūdī mentions the names of those who participated: "'Alī ibn al-Haytham who was an Imāmī among the famous Shī'ī *mutakallims*." He is the first that he mentions, and the second is "Abū Mālik al-Ḥaḍramī, who was a Khārijite", but this person was an Imāmī *mutakallim*.⁷⁹ The third person is "Muḥammad ibn al-Hudhayl al-'Allāf, who was the leader of the Baṣran Mu'tazilah", and the fourth is "Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam al-Kūfī, the leader of the Imāmiyyah in his time, a master of the science [of *kalām*] in his age." The fifth is

⁷⁹ See *Uṣūlu 'l-Kāfi*, "Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd", Introduction, no.19.

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"Ibrāhīm ibn Sayyār an-Nazzām, a Mu'tazilī who was one of those who held opinions among the Baṣrans of his age". The sixth is "Alī ibn Manṣūr, an Imāmī who was one of those Shī'ī who held opinions, and was a companion of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam." The seventh is "Mu'tamir ibn Sulaymān, a Mu'tazilī, one of the leaders whom they followed." The eighth is "Bishr ibn al-Mu'tamir, a Mu'tazilī, the leader of the Baghdādīs, the teacher of those who held opinions and were *mutakallims* among them, like Ja'far ibn Ḥarb, Ja'far ibn Mubashshir [in Maynard's edition: Muntashshir], and other *mutakallims* of Baghdad." The ninth is "Thumāmah ibn Ashras, a Mu'tazilī." The tenth is "as-Sakkāl [read: Sakkāk], an Imāmī, and a companion of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam." And more are mentioned.⁸⁰

I will restrict myself here to pointing out specifically those Mu'tazilīs who mentioned that Hishām met with them, and not others.

1. Abū 'Uthmān, 'Amr ibn 'Ubayd at-Taymī al-Baṣrī (80/699–144/761), the second of the two pioneers and propagandists of the Mu'tazilah. Hishām met him in the mosque at Baṣrah, and disputed with him on the subject of the Imāmate. The victory in this dispute went to Hishām who 'ripped him apart', as they put it.⁸¹

2. 'Abdu'r-Raḥmān ibn Kaysān, Abū Bakr al-Aṣam al-Baṣrī (d. 200/816), a distinguished Mu'tazilī, who held a high position among them. But al-Aṣam was a *nāṣibī* Mu'tazilī who detested the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him: 'and he rejected his Imāmate',⁸² 'and in him there was a hatred of 'Alī,

⁸⁰ *Murūju 'dh-dhahab, Livre des prairies d'or*, vol.6, pp.368-76, Beirut ed., vol.3, pp.370-2.

⁸¹ *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, pp.169-71, nos.432/3; al-Kishshī, pp.271-3; al-Murtaḍā, *al-Amālī*, vol.1, pp.176-7; al-Mas'ūdī, *Murūju 'dh-dhahab*, Paris edition, vol.7, pp.234-6; and many other sources.

⁸² ash-Shahristānī, vol.1, p.31.

the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, and for this reason he is disgraced.⁸³ His motives in rejecting 'Alī's Imāmate – he meant that 'Alī was not the fourth caliph, not that he was not the *imām* in the Imāmī sense of the term⁸⁴ – and in holding his opinion about who had murdered 'Alī⁸⁵ demonstrate his hostile attitude towards him. 'Regarding 'Alī and Mu'āwiyah, he maintained beliefs, which placed Mu'āwiyah in a better position than 'Alī.'⁸⁶ al-Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār al-Mu'tazilī and Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā az-Zaydī state that 'what our followers detest about him . . . is his aversion to 'Alī, peace be upon him.' From Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā: 'He displayed a great pre-judice against the Commander of the Faithful, and, our followers say, he was put to the test in an argument with Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, and he exaggerated this and that.'⁸⁷ To understand his stance concerning the Imāmate of the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, one would have to consult what is contained in Bishr ibn al-Mu'tamar (d. 210/825), a distinguished Mu'tazilī: *Kitābu 'r-radd 'ala 'l-Aṣam fi 'l-imāmah*, and al-Aṣam: *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā Hishām fi 't-tashbīh* and *Kitābu 'l-jāmi' 'ala 'r-Rāfiḍah*.⁸⁸ Regarding someone who is overcome with adversity and stubbornness to the point where what he says about 'Alī, peace be upon him, is not approved of by his co-sectarians, should one suppose that he would stick to truth and fairness in what he says about Hishām and the Rāfiḍah?

3. Muḥammad ibn al-Hudhayl al-'Abdī, their client, Abu 'l-

⁸³ Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.214.

⁸⁴ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.2, p.133; ash-Shahristānī, vol.1, pp.31, 72-73.

⁸⁵ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.2, pp.130-1.

⁸⁶ al-Baghdādī, *Uṣūlu 'd-dīn*, pp.270, 287, 291.

⁸⁷ al-Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār, *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl wa ṭabaqāti 'l-Mu'tazilah*, p.267; Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, p.156. The only explanation I can find for these words is that the escalation of enmity between them forced each of them to exaggerate their opinion and forsake his school.

⁸⁸ See, respectively, Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, pp.185 and 214.

Hudhayl al-‘Allāf al-Baṣrī (135/753–235/850). ash-Shahristānī said:

Debates between [Hishām] and Abu 'l-Hudhayl took place on theology, some of them concerned anthropomorphism, and some the attachment of God's knowledge.⁸⁹

al-Mas‘ūdī recounts one of the discussions, and says at the end of it: "Abu 'l-Hudhayl fell silent, and did not come forth with an answer."⁹⁰ But Ibn Ḥajar al-‘Asqalānī distorted the words of al-Mas‘ūdī – and I would be surprised if it were unintentional – when he said in his biography of Abu 'l-Hudhayl: "al-Mas‘ūdī mentions an argument between him and Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, the Rāfiḍī, and that Abu 'l-Hudhayl defeated Hishām in it."⁹¹

4. Ibrāhīm ibn Sayyār, Abū Ishāq an-Nazzām al-Baṣrī (c 160/776–231/845). His Mu‘tazilī biographers say: "When an-Nazzām had left for *hajj*, on his return he set out for Kūfah, where he met Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and others, and they discussed the fine points of theology."⁹²

The history of this meeting leaves no doubt that it took place prior to the year 179/796, in which Hishām emigrated from Kūfah to Baghdad and took up residence there. an-Nazzām was then not more than twenty, and, if the story is true, no doubt he wanted to discuss questions and controversies along the lines of those, which pass between a teacher and a student. The young an-Nazzām, when he met Hishām, questioned him on the fine points of theology, and this is proof of an-Nazzām's intelli-

⁸⁹ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, pp.30, 184.

⁹⁰ *Murūju 'dh-dhahab*, vol.7, pp.232-3.

⁹¹ *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.5, p.414.

⁹² al-Qāḍī ‘Abdu 'l-Jabbār, *Faḍlu 'l-i‘tizāl wa dhikru 'l-Mu‘tazilah*, p.254; Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, p.149; Dr. ‘Abdu 'r-Rahmān Badawī, *Madhāhibu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.127, but he has misunderstood the words of Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā which he has quoted.

gence and his ability to deduce questions on theological details and his understanding of the complicated answers given by prominent theologians like Hishām and others. Perhaps one of these discussions is what al-Maḡdīsī relates,⁹³ that is, that it was not a discussion or argument in the precise meaning of these words, but rather that an-Nazzām only put forth questions as any student would, and, moreover, did not raise objections concerning what he heard, except at the level of a student questioning a teacher, and that Hishām answered, without receiving any objections or arguments.

Nevertheless, an argument took place between him and Hishām surrounding the immortality of the People of Paradise (*ahlu 'l-jannah*) in Paradise, and the everlasting nature of their felicity, since an-Nazzām denied this; and Hishām defeated him in it.⁹⁴

However, what I must point out is that Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam was not a master of philosophical ideas, especially those of the Greeks, which had recently reached the Islamic lands, and which aroused great concern among those on whom authority and power had been conferred, especially the Barmakids and after them those who continued the 'Abbāsīd caliphate. The biographers of Hishām relate that Yaḥyā al-Barmakī loved Hishām, sheltered him as his own, and that his care for him knew no bounds, because 'Yaḥyā ibn Khālīd al-Barmakī had enjoined Hishām to attack the philosophers . . .'⁹⁵ They say that this is one of the reasons which induced al-Barmakī to induce the caliph Hārūn ar-Rashīd to support Hishām.⁹⁶

⁹³ *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol.2, pp.123-4.

⁹⁴ al-Kishshī, pp.274-5; *Majma' u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.228.

⁹⁵ al-Kishshī, p.258; *Majma' u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.218; *al-Bihār*, vol.48, p.189.

⁹⁶ Hishām wrote a *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā Aristūṭālīs fī 't-tawḥīd* (Refutation of Aristotle on Unicity); see at-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.204; an-Najāshī, p.305; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.224; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; *Majma' u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.233, 234; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.10, p.183.

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His pupils inherited this trait of Hishām's after him. Indeed, we find in an index of books, which was written by the famous Imāmī theologian and scholar al-Faḍl ibn Shādhān al-Azdī an-Naysābūrī (c 195/811–260/873) books which refute the philosophers, and al-Faḍl traces their authorship back to the point where they reach Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam.⁹⁷

17

THE MU'TAZILĪS WHOM HISHĀM
MET AND THEIR DISCUSSIONS

I have been concerned with Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, and after him with Hishām ibn Sālim, only because adversaries of the Imāmiyyah made him the crack through which they attacked the Imāmiyyah with all their might, and directed at him, and through him at the Imāmiyyah, every possible defamation, derogation, and disparagement, prejudice and malediction. They attributed to him what was correct – albeit infrequently – and, more often, what was incorrect; and, moreover, they attributed contradictory opinions to him. The amazing thing about these adversaries is that we find enmity and hatred flung back and forwards between them since the birth of the sects they arose from up to our own day, may Allāh desire that it cease, for they are mutually antagonistic adversaries, one against the other, in the strongest sense of antagonism and adversity, all of them attributing to the other what a Muslim does not attribute to someone he holds to be a brother in the religion. Nevertheless, we find that enmity and adversity have united them against the Imāmiyyah in general and Hishām in particular, and so they befriend one another, and support one another.

⁹⁷ See the biography of al-Faḍl ibn Shādhān in the forward to the English translation of "Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd" of *al-Kāfi*.

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The hostility towards Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam originated from the Mu‘tazilah; they were the ones whom Hishām had opposed in argument, those who attributed to him what was attributed to them, as will be mentioned below. The adversaries of the Mu‘tazilah, people like ‘Abdu 'l-Qāhir al-Baghdādī, al-Malaṭī, Ibn Ḥazm, al-Isfarāyīnī, Ibn Taymiyyah, his colleague adh-Dhahabī, and his student Ibnu 'l-Qayyim al-Jawziyyah, Ibn Kathīr and Ibn Ḥajar accused them at the very least of extreme innovation and deceit; they did not trust them or what they narrated, they said of them that they had invented falsehoods and a new religion for themselves, and that they were not bound by the laws of the *sharī‘ah*, but rather overstepped them. This applied to many of them in general, and to many of the distinguished Mu‘tazilah in particular. They passed on to unbelief or atheism, and departed from the religious community who cursed them and washed their hands of them, but all of whom accepted what the Mu‘tazilah attributed to the Imāmiyyah and Hishām and theologians like him. They strayed from the religion except when they attacked the Imāmiyyah, and were feeble liars except when they attributed an infamy to the Imāmiyyah or spoke of them degradingly. I will not extend the discussion to what they said about Wāṣil ibn ‘Aṭā’, ‘Amr ibn ‘Ubayd, Abu 'l-Hudhayl, Thumāmah ibn Ashras, an-Nazzām, and others like them among the leading personalities of the Mu‘tazilah and their scholars. What is worse than this is that they followed and promoted the methods of their brothers-in-law the Mu‘tazilah, who were their adversaries in dogma, and distorted and changed, discarded and added, perfected – as they claim – what they found tacking in the Mu‘tazilī armoury, and patched up any weakness they stumbled on. I have quoted examples of this above, and a few more will follow. I do not intend in saying this that these observations should refute what they wrote about the characteristics of their masters – I have previously stated that I have given up

this kind of hope. I have said what I have said by way of introduction to some of the ideas of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and the views attributed to him.

18

THE MU‘TAZILĪS FOUND FAULT WITH HISHĀM
AND FABRICATED FALSE POSITIONS FOR HIM,
THE ANTI-MU‘TAZILĪS AGREED WITH THEM HERE
BUT NOT ALWAYS ELSEWHERE

I shall not be led here to speak in detail of every idea they attributed to Hishām; it is possible for the reader to refer to what I have said about Muqātil ibn Sulaymān and Dāwūd al-Jawāribī, which are clear examples of what they said about Hishām. I will be content here to clarify the points, which call upon us to refute an imputation like that, directed at Hishām.

Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam was, it is said, in the beginning, a Jahmī, a follower of Jahm ibn Ṣafwān (d. 128/745), and then renounced him after joining the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, and his error had been made clear to him.⁹⁸

Jahm ibn Ṣafwān, as is understood from his sect, was opposed to corporeality and anthropomorphism to the greatest extent; concerning the attributes of Allāh, his school was a Mu‘tazilah school when it first emerged. He was a contemporary of Wāṣil ibn ‘Aṭā’ and ‘Amr ibn ‘Ubayd, the two founders of the Mu‘tazilah, and they held nothing against him except the doctrine of the impermanence of Paradise and Hell and that felicity and chastisement were not eternal. They held against him his belief in *irjā’* (postponement of judgement about whether the grave sinner was a believer or an unbeliever), not

⁹⁸ al-Kishshī, pp.256-7; *Majma‘u ‘r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.216-7; Ibnu ‘n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, al-Istiḳāmah ed., Cairo, p.257 (Tajaddud ed., Tehran, [to which reference is usually made] p.224), *al-Manāqib*, vol.4, p.244.

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the doctrine of *al-manzilah bayna 'l-manzilatayn* (the state of the sinner as intermediate between that of a believer and an unbeliever), which was their doctrine concerning the grave sinner.⁹⁹

However, the principle point of difference between him and the Mu'tazilah as a whole was his belief in predestination, and their belief in free will, since among the later Mu'tazilah there were some who believed in *irjā'* and some who believed in the impermanence of Paradise and Hell. However all of them agreed on the doctrine of free will and refuted predestination. For this reason ash-Shahristānī counts him among those who 'emerged from the Mu'tazilah in the days of Naṣr ibn Sayyār and made his innovation from the Mu'tazilī position on predestination clear.¹⁰⁰

One of the views of Jahm, which influenced Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, was his statement about Allāh, praise be to Him: 'He is a body unlike [other] bodies', as will be shown. One of Jahm ibn Ṣafwān's doctrines, as al-Ash'arī relates, was that he believed that 'Allāh is a body,' and went on to say that 'the meaning of "body" is "existent"'.¹⁰¹ He says the same about Hishām. From this, he goes on to relate that he believed that 'God's knowledge is incipient: He did not know then He knew'¹⁰² and that he had taken this also from Jahm.¹⁰³

⁹⁹ Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, pp.23, 107; and see al-Balkhī, *Dhikru 'l-Mu'tazilah*, p.67; al-Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār, *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl*, p.241.

¹⁰⁰ *al-Milal wa 'l-niḥal*, vol.1, p.32; see the *Encyclopaedia of Islam*, new ed., vol.2, p.388, and the *Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam*, p.83, and the references given in both of them.

¹⁰¹ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.269; vol.2, p.164.

¹⁰² *al-Intiṣār*, pp.14, 50; *al-Fiṣal*, vol.2, p.126, & vol.4, p.182; *Lisānu 'l-mizān*, vol.6, p.194.

¹⁰³ ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.87; *Nihāyatu 'l-iqdām*, p.215; *al-Fiṣal*, vol.2, p.126; *al-Mu'tamad fī uṣūli 'd-dīn*, p.45; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.11, p.63.

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ash-Shahristānī compares 'Jahm and Hishām's assertion that knowledge ('*ulūm*) is not in a location [with respect to Allāh, praise be to Him, because since they spoke of the incipience of His knowledge they made Him a locus for His knowledge, and this contradicts His eternity, which was their doctrine] with the Ash'ariyyah's assertion that speech (*taklīm*) is not in a location.¹⁰⁴

It is mentioned that the famous Mu'tazilī theologian Abu 'l-Ḥusayn, Muḥammad ibn 'Alī ibn aṭ-Ṭayyib, al-Baṣrī, al-Ḥanafī (d. 436/1044) adopted Hishām's view regarding God's knowledge. ash-Shahristānī states: "He inclined towards the school of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam concerning the belief that things were not known before they existed."¹⁰⁵

But two other views are also reported on the authority of Hishām which contradict the aforesaid: 'The Creator never ceases to know through His Self, and He knows things after their coming into existence through a knowledge which cannot be said to be either incipient or eternal, and because it is an attribute and the attribute is not ascribed, it is not said about [this knowledge] that it is He or something else. They add that his belief about Power and Life was not like his belief in knowledge, except that he did not believe that they were incipient.'¹⁰⁶

However, the Shaykh al-Mufid denied the truth of associating this opinion with Hishām, and his words follow. What was attributed to Hishām was his belief in strong compulsion (*al-ijbāru 'sh-shadīd*), which the believers of the *sunnah* did not subscribe to, as Ibn Qutaybah states.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰⁴ *Nihāyatu 'l-iqdām*, p.245.

¹⁰⁵ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.85; *Nihāyatu 'l-iqdām*, p.221.

¹⁰⁶ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.268; ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.185; *al-Farq bayna 'l-fīraq*, p.49; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, p.219.

¹⁰⁷ *Ta'wīl mukhtalafī 'l-ḥadīth*, p.48; *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.6, p.194.

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If this attribution is true and Hishām followed Jahm in it, as stated above, then he was distinguished from his Mu'tazilī brothers by his belief in absolute predestination, and their belief in complete choice (*ikhtiyār*, or *qadar* as their adversaries called it).

In the light of what has been said, what was attributed to Hishām can be divided into two sections: (a) that which conforms with the beliefs of the Jahmiyyah who preceded him, and this is possibly a correct attribution as long as the narrations are correct, and these are the short examples I have quoted; and (b) the greater portion of what his adversaries attributed to him, and this does not accord with the beliefs of the Jahmiyyah before him, nor those of the Imāmiyyah after him; we have no alternative but to conclude that this was attributed to him calumniously and that it is true that Hishām may have held a part of these beliefs (this is only supposition with no basis in fact), but that he did not believe them in earnest, as will be shown. It is necessary to point out that Hishām's Jahmiyyah period was doubtless during his early adolescence, and, moreover, when he was still a juvenile, since when he became an adolescent and still 'the first thing I noticed was his bare cheeks', as has been stated, he did not believe outright in the Imāmate, but rather disputed about it and debated and argued with his adversaries and critics about it. I think that it is closer to the truth, and more in line with the established facts of Hishām's life and behaviour, that his connections with the Jahmiyyah were limited to following Jahm ibn Ṣafwān and some of his ideas, which are the three examples I mentioned earlier which are not incompatible with the doctrine of the Imāmate, the requirements of its concomitants, and its defense, and did not involve an association with the Jahmiyyah sect in all its dimensions and extent. Hishām was not for one day a Jahmī except to a limited extent; he did not follow them in all his ideas and beliefs.

Past and present scholars of the Imāmiyyah have investigated the ideas, which were attributed to Hishām, and have defended him and refuted their attribution to him. All of these ideas are summarised with characteristic brevity in that which is cited by the Sharīf al-Murtaḍā, Abu 'l-Qāsim, 'Alī ibn al-Ḥusayn, 'Alamu 'l-Hudā, al-Mūsawī (355/966–436/1044), who said:

[A]nd as for what Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam is charged with regarding belief in corporeality, the ostensive meaning of what is narrated from him is his doctrine: 'a body unlike bodies.' There is no contradiction in saying that this belief is not anthropomorphism, is not inconsistent with any basic principle (*aṣl*), does not oppose any derived doctrine (*far'*), but is an error in expression [since by 'body' the 'existent' is intended, not the material body, as will be mentioned] which depends upon language for its affirmation or denial. Most of our followers say that he brought this up in the course of opposition to the Mu'tazilah, and said to them: "If you say that the Eternal is a thing unlike things, say He is a body unlike bodies." Not everyone who proposes something and asks questions about it is a believer in it or upholds it. It is possible that the intention behind this statement was to draw out their answer to this question and to understand what they held regarding it, or to reveal their inadequacy in putting forward a satisfactory answer, or for other reasons, which he does not express.

As for the narration that he upheld the view that Allāh is a body having the reality of apparent bodies (*al-ajsāmu 'l-ḥāḍirah*), and the report about the spans (*ashbār*) of God's

hand attributed to him,¹⁰⁸ we only know of it from the narration of al-Jāhiz on the authority of an-Nazzām, and it contains nothing but an accusation which is clearly unreliable in its expression. The whole matter is evidence that the schools must learn from the mouths of their spokesmen and authorized followers and whoever is reliable in narrating about them, and should not rely on propagandistic adversaries . . . That Hishām was innocent of this accusation is demonstrated by what is related on the authority of the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, in his statement: 'O Hishām, continue to be supported by the Spirit of Holiness as long as you defend us with your tongue', spoken when the *shaykhs* came to him [this has been narrated from al-Mufīd], and by his words . . .¹⁰⁹ He, peace be upon him, marked him out in matters to do with speculation and proof and urged the people to hasten to face him and debate with him. How can an intelligent person believe this statement that his Lord is seven spans of His own span after what we have mentioned?

As for the incipience of [Divine] knowledge, this is another narration they circulated, and we do not know that the man wrote about it, nor that the account is trustworthy.

As for determinism and [God's] obliging [someone] to do what he is unable [to do], it is something about which we do not know whether it was his opinion.¹¹⁰

To these words of ash-Sharīf al-Murtaḍā can be added a few

¹⁰⁸ Hishām said of his Lord: "He is seven spans [the length] of His own span", this is mentioned in all the non-Imāmī sources (Ibn 'l-Murtaḍā az-Zaydī al-Mu'tazilī reduces them by two and gives five spans): *al-Baḥru 'z-zakḥkhār*, vol.1, p.47; *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, p.30.

¹⁰⁹ He mentions what was related from Ibn Shahrāshūb above in the first part of the biography of Hishām.

¹¹⁰ *ash-Shāfi*, vol.1, pp.83-88.

comments condensed from more extensive discussions:

1. ash-Shahristānī states:

This Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, who had a profound [knowledge] of theology, could not have ignored the objections he made against the Mu‘tazilites. [This] man in fact went beyond what he made his adversary admit, while remaining well short of the anthropomorphism, which he professed. This was how he had objected to al-‘Allāf: 'You say that the Creator knows through knowledge, that His knowledge is His essence, that He shares with incipient [created] things in being a knower through knowledge, that He is distinct from them in that His knowledge is His essence, so He is a knower unlike [other] knowers. So why do you not say that He is a body unlike [other] bodies, a form unlike [other] forms, that He has power unlike [any other] power, and so forth.'¹¹¹

2. The biographers have cited more than thirty books and treatises, which Hishām wrote. Those which are concerned with Unicity and its aspects are: (1) *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*, (2) *Kitābu 'l-majālis fi 't-tawḥīd*, (3) *Kitābu 'sh-Shaykh wa 'l-ghulām fi 't-tawḥīd*, (4) *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā Ariṣṭāṭālīs fi 't-tawḥīd*, (5) *Kitābu 'd-dalālāt 'alā ḥadathi (ḥudūthi) 'l-ajsām*, (6) *Kitābu 'r-radd 'ala 'z-zanādiqah*, (7) *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā aṣḥābi 'l-ithnayn*, (8) *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā aṣḥābi 't-ṭabāyi'*,¹¹² (9) *Kitāb fi 'l-jabr wa 'l-qadar*, (10) *Kitābu 'l-Qadar*, (11) *Kitābu 'l-Istiṭā'ah*, (12)

¹¹¹ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.185, and, citing this, Dr. ‘Alī Sāmī an-Nashshār, *Nash'atu 'l-fikri 'l-falsafī fi 'l-Islām*, vol.2, p.220, who, however, does not discuss it.

¹¹² By whom he had in mind those who held that things exist of themselves and in their existence have no need of God, who is their Creator, this being one of the historical roots of modern materialist thought; they also came in different degrees, from those who were plain and simple materialists – common materialism – and those who were influenced by the thoughts and philosophies of the Greeks, or Buddhist or Hindu beliefs.

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Kitābu 'l-Ma'rifah, (13) *Kitābu 'l-Altāf*, (14) *Kitābu 'l-Alfāz*.¹¹³

If these ideas were firmly established ideas of Hishām, then he would have mentioned them in his books, and his Imāmī biographers would have narrated them, and so would those who passed on knowledge and read his works, not one of which has reached us or been alluded to in the accounts of the Imāmiyyah, although some of his ideas are mentioned in their accounts, as will be seen.

In addition, that which adversaries do relate about Hishām's ideas they say that he said in the course of discussion and debate with his Mu'tazilī adversaries and do not attribute a single one of them to what he wrote in any of his books. If these adversaries had stumbled upon any remnant of such ideas in his books then they would have attributed it to the book itself.

3. The statement of Hishām: 'a body unlike [other] bodies' was originally one of Jahm ibn Ṣafwān's ideas, and if Hishām held it, then he was following Jahm in it, as was stated previously. Perhaps, after the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, had turned him away from the Jahmiyyah, Hishām used it when the Mu'tazilah were disputing with the adversaries of the Jahmiyyah. This statement remained fixed in the minds of his students or other Shī'ah, and when Hishām came to hold a high position and rank with the Imāms, peace be upon them, and the Imāmiyyah as a whole, the Imāms asked about it, as will be shown. It is not correct for us to refute the honourable word of al-Murtaḍā, that Hishām used it in the course of debate, employing what comes to us in the way of accounts which emphasize Hishām's belief in the body.

¹¹³ Perhaps this latter was an explanation of the technical terms, which he used or which were used in theology. For all these titles see aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.204; an-Najāshī, *al-Fihrist*, pp.304-5; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, p.224; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.233-4; *Hadiyyatu 'l-'ārifīn*, vol.2, p.507; and others.

4. Based on my investigation, and within the bounds of the sources I possess – and they are very limited when weighed against those that have perished – I am almost certain, for reasons which there is not enough room here to mention, that Abu 'l-Hudhayl al-‘Allāf is to be considered the principle source for most of what is attributed to Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam.¹¹⁴

As to what is related by others besides Abu 'l-Hudhayl, there are statements showing us that these accounts can be traced back to him, if the narrators are truthful and have not fabricated the narration. For all the narrators the chain of their Mu‘tazilī education goes back to him. Abu 'l-Hudhayl taught an-Nazzām, Thumāmah ibn Ashras, an-Numayrī al-Baṣrī (d. 213/828) – one of Hishām's Mu‘tazilī contemporaries –, and Ja‘far ibn Ḥarb al-Baṣrī, then al-Baghdādī (177/793–236/850).¹¹⁵

an-Nazzām taught Zurqān, Muḥammad ibn Shaddād ibn ‘Īsā al-Baṣrī (d. 278/891), the famous author of *Kitābu 'l-maqālāt*, which is considered one of the authoritative Islamic reference works concerning treatises and sects,¹¹⁶ and al-Jāḥiz, ‘Amr ibn Baḥr (163/780–255/869).¹¹⁷ Ibn Qutaybah ad-Dīnawarī, ‘Abdullāh ibn Muslim (213/828–276/889) studied with al-

¹¹⁴ Refer to the account directly from Abu 'l-Hudhayl, *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.103, 257, 258; and on his authority *al-Farq bayna 'l-firaq*, pp.48, 216; and *al-Firaq madhāhabi 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.127; and from Abu 'l-Hudhayl, *al-Fiṣal*, vol.4, p.184; and on his authority *Minhāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, p.203; *Lisānu 'l-mizān*, vol.6, p.194; and from Abu 'l-Hudhayl, *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl*, pp.140, 262; *al-Hūru 'l-‘īyn*, p.254; and al-Kirmānī, *al-Firaqu 'l-Islāmiyyah*, p.44.

¹¹⁵ Refer to the account of him in *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.110; *al-Firaq*, p.50; *Minhāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, p.214.

¹¹⁶ Refer to the account in *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.109, 112; vol.2, p.232; *Minhāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, p.208; and on the authority of Zurqān, *al-Hūru 'l-‘īyn*, pp.148-9, 170.

¹¹⁷ Refer to the account of his (which lacks a chain of authority) in *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.104, 268; vol.2, pp.161-2; and on his authority, *al-Firaq*, pp.49, 216.

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Jāḥiẓ.¹¹⁸

Ja'far ibn Ḥarb was the teacher of Abu 'l-Ḥusayn al-Khayyāt, 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān ibn Muḥammad al-Baghdādī (d. 300/912), the author of *al-Intiṣār wa 'r-radd 'alā Ibnu 'r-Rawandī al-mulḥid*.¹¹⁹

al-Khayyāt taught al-Ka'bī al-Balkhī, 'Abdullāh ibn Aḥmad (273/886–319/931);¹²⁰ and Mu'tazilī *imāms* who came after these, such as the two Jubbā'īs and the Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār, drew from them. al-'Allāf is reckoned to be the head of the chain in this list.

Ibnu 'r-Rawandī accused al-Jāḥiẓ of having gone too far in his opposition to Hishām, to the extent that he stood shoulder to shoulder with the adversaries of the Commander of the Faithful, peace be upon him, and was 'driven to partisanship and seeking revenge for his two teachers in the person of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam'.¹²¹ Ibnu 'r-Rawandī does not specify who the two teachers were; without a doubt, one of them was an-Nazzām,¹²² and it is clear to anyone who traces the thread back that the

¹¹⁸ See his reference to al-Jāḥiẓ in *'Uyūnu 'l-akḥbār*, vol.3, pp.199, 216, 249; and see also what he states about Hishām in *Ta'wīl mukhtalifi 'l-ḥadīth*, p.48, and *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.6, p.194.

¹¹⁹ Refer to what he explicitly attributes to Hishām in *al-Intiṣār*, pp.14, 37, 50.

¹²⁰ See the account from him in *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.104, 107-8; vol.2, pp.163-4, 231; *al-Firaq*, pp.49, 50; *Minḥāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, pp.207, 208; *al-Firaqu 'l-Islāmiyyah*, pp.44-45; and from al-Ka'bī, *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.184.

¹²¹ *al-Intiṣār*, p.103.

¹²² Agreeing here with the sources, which give al-Jāḥiẓ as a pupil of an-Nazzām: see *Faḍlu 'l-i'tizāl*, p.265; *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, pp.153, 162; *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.7, p.97; vol.12, p.213; Ibn Khallikān, vol.3, p.471; *Mu'jamu 'l-udabā'*, vol.6, p.57; *Nuzhatu 'l-alibbā'*, p.192; and many other sources. al-Jāḥiẓ amplifies accounts from an-Nazzām, and praises him in his books: refer to the name indexes in *al-Bayān wa 't-tabyīn*, *al-Ḥayawān*, etc.

second is Abu 'l-Hudhayl.¹²³

Abu 'l-Hudhayl took revenge on others within the Imāmiyyah, e.g., their theologians Abu 'l-Ḥasan 'Alī ibn Ismā'īl ibn Shu'ayb ibn Maytham al-Kūfī, then al-Baṣrī, famous among them as 'Alī ibn Maytham:¹²⁴ 'He was one of the prominent theologians among our followers who disputed with Abu 'l-Hudhayl and an-Nazzām, and held sessions and wrote books'.¹²⁵ There is also what Ibn Ḥajar narrated from Abu 'l-Qāsim at-Taymī in the "Kitābu 'l-Ḥujjah": 'He debated with him before the *amīr* of Baṣrah.'¹²⁶

20

THE IMĀMĪ DEFENSE OF HISHĀM

Indeed, there exists in the accounts of the Imāmiyyah the attribution of the doctrine of God's having a body to Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, and these accounts contributed to the belief being attributed to him; and yet his belief in it is inexplicable.¹²⁷ His belief is clearly set forth in a number of places, among them is a Tradition from Yūnus ibn Zabyān, in which he relates Hishām's belief to the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, and says:

He claims that Allāh is a body, because the matter is twofold: a body and the action of the body. It is not possible

¹²³ *al-Ḥayawān*, vol.6, p.166.

¹²⁴ His report concerning the discussion surrounding Hishām ibn Sālim will follow.

¹²⁵ an-Najāshī, p.176; *Majma'u'r-rijāl*, vol.1.4, p.167; and refer to examples of his disputations with Abu 'l-Hudhayl, in which he gained the upper hand, in *al-Fuṣūlu 'l-mukhtārah*, vol.1, pp.6, 55; *al-Bihār*, vol.10, pp.370-2.

¹²⁶ Refer to *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.5, pp.265-6, to see what he invented about him.

¹²⁷ See *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, p.105, nos.285/6; *at-Tawḥīd*, pp.97, 99; *al-Bihār*, vol.3, p.303.

for 'Maker' to have the meaning 'doing', while it is possible for it to have the meaning 'doer'.

Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, said:

Woe to him. He knows that a body is limited and finite, that a form is limited and finite, and if limits are permitted then addition and subtraction are [also] permissible, and if additions and subtractions are permitted, then He is a created being.¹²⁸

There is also a Tradition from Ḥasan ibn 'Abdi'r-Raḥmān al-Ḥimmānī, who said:

I said to Abu 'l-Ḥasan Mūsā ibn Ja'far, peace be upon him, that Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam claimed that God was a body unlike any thing [i.e., a body unlike (other) bodies], Knowing, Hearing, Seeing, possessing Power, Conversing and Speaking; Speech, Power, and Knowledge go together, nothing of them being created. He, peace be upon him, renounced the doctrine of body, because it is limited, and he pointed out that these attributes do not go together, since there are among them those which are attributes of essence, such as Knowledge and Power, and those which are attributes of action, like Conversing and Speech.¹²⁹

It is stated in a Tradition from 'Alī ibn Abī Ḥamzah:

I said to Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, that I heard Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam relate on your authority that Allāh is a body, eternal and radiant, and that knowledge of Him is necessary, and He bestows [it] upon whoever of His creatures He wishes.¹³⁰

¹²⁸ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, p.106, no.287; *at-Tawḥīd*, p.99; *al-Fuṣūl 'l-mukhtārah*, vol.2, p.285; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.302; vol.10, p.453. Another tradition on the same subject with a clearer and more detailed explanation about Hishām ibn Sālim will be mentioned in his biography.

¹²⁹ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, p.106, no.288; *at-Tawḥīd*, p.100; *al-Ihtijāj*, vol.2, p.155; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.295.

¹³⁰ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, p.104, no.282; *at-Tawḥīd*, p.98; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.301.

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However, it is extremely likely that the narrator has confused the words of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam with what is attributed to Hishām ibn Sālim, as will be seen. Whatever the case may be the meaning of the *ḥadīth* is not different from what has been stated previously.

The same statement has been made on Hishām's authority in books of theological ideas: 'He is a body unlike bodies', and that Hishām said: 'What I intend by saying "body" is that He is existent, that He is a thing, and that He is self-existent, because whatever exists is either a body or an attribute of bodies.'¹³¹ It has already been said that Hishām took this statement from Jahm ibn Ṣafwān.

Hishām's excuse in this was that he had not come across another term besides 'body', which conveyed the meaning of 'self-existent being'; the error or correctness of this expression is a question of language, not belief, as al-Murtaḍā stated. 'Body' in the Arabic language has a distinctly defined meaning, and it is incorrect to apply another meaning to it unless this meaning is qualified and justifiable.

Hishām lived at the beginning of an age in which theological and philosophical terms were being coined in the Muslim community, and he was one of those early *mutakallims* who 'was feeling his way towards an adequate philosophical vocabulary in Arabic', as W. Montgomery Watt has stated.¹³²

Perhaps the clue to this harshness on the part of the Imāms peace be upon them, and this manifestly cutting denial of what Hishām expressed goes back to the fact that 'body', as we have indicated previously, has a clear significance in ordinary speech,

¹³¹ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.257; vol.2, p.182; and see 'Alī Sāmī an-Nashshār, *Nash'atu 'l-fikri 'l-falsafi fi 'l-Islām*, vol.2, p.230; Saḥīr Muḥammad Mukhtār, *at-Tajsīm 'inda 'l-Muslimīn*, p.127, and the sources indicated in both of them.

¹³² *The Formative Period of Islamic Thought*, Edinburgh, 1973, p.248.

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stemming from its meaning in the Arabic language, and that, if Hishām ascribed 'body' to God and coupled 'unlike bodies' to it, it would almost certainly induce the idea of, or lead the ordinary mind to, corporeality and anthropomorphism, provided 'a body unlike bodies' were interpreted by them in a way close to the interpretation we have related earlier, based on the statements of the non-Imāmī Traditionists who believed in corporeality, limbs, and the parts of God, but said that He did not resemble in any one of these things anything belonging to a created body, or limbs, or parts. The meaning of their doctrine, even if they did not make it clear, was that Allāh has 'a head unlike heads', and 'a hand unlike hands', and 'an eye unlike eyes', and that He is 'a body unlike bodies' with the word 'body' continuing to carry the same meaning as that which was ordinarily understood, and not the precise meaning which Hishām intended and which was elevated above the ordinary level of comprehension, not to mention the comprehension of scholars who were not specialists in the science of theology. Hishām should not have used the word 'body' without a clear explanation of its context. For this reason, the expression suggests corporeality and anthropomorphism in the mind of the listener, even if the speaker who deployed the term did not intend these concepts, especially a theologian like Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, given the distinguished position he held with the Imāms, peace be upon them, and the indisputable scholarly and religious position he held with their Shī'ī followers.

The following discussion, concerning the debate surrounding Hishām ibn Sālim, will bear witness to what we have said, since in it the Imām, peace be upon him, approves of what Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and his followers state, but only when the people being addressed are specialists in the science of theology who can distinguish between scholarly terminology and the ordinary meanings of language.

21

THE OPINION OF HISHĀM ON GOD'S BODY
BEING UNLIKE OTHER BODIES, AND
THE IMĀMĪ POSITION AGAINST HIM

It is appropriate, although perhaps rather surprising, that I should pass on an opinion concerning 'a body unlike bodies' from one of the most stalwart of Muslim scholars, strict and vehement in matters of belief, one of the many who stood by the Qur'ān and the *Sunnah* in his opinion, inflexible regarding the way they were formulated, and one of the greatest critics of what he saw as innovation and heresy in religion, Abū Muḥammad 'Alī ibn Aḥmad ibn Ḥazm al-Andalusī (384/994–456/1064), who stated:

If they say to us: You state that Allāh is Living unlike [other] living beings, Knowing unlike [other] knowers, Powerful unlike those who possess power, a thing unlike [other] things, and you do not prohibit the doctrine that He is a body unlike [other] bodies, then it should be said to them, but let Allāh be the judge: Is there not a Text transmitted in the name of the Most High which contains the designation that He is Living, Powerful, and Knowing in the sense that we designate such things? But going no further than the Text is a duty (*fard*), and no text has come ascribing a body to Him, and the proof of ascribing a body to him does not stand, rather proof prohibits this ascription. If a text were to come to us which assigned a body to Him, then we would be obliged to believe that; but we would say that he is unlike bodies, as we state with respect to Knowing, Powerful, and Living, without any difference. As for the expression 'thing,' the Qur'ān contains it, and proof makes it necessary.¹³³

¹³³ *al-Fiṣal*, offset print, Dāru 'l-Ma'rifah, Beirut, 1395/1975, vol.2, pp.118-9.

He also says:

Whoever states that Allāh is a body unlike bodies is not an anthropomorphist [read *mushabbih* in place of *mushtabih*] because it is the limit of the names of Allāh, since 'we name Him the Glorious and Exalted, which he did not assign to himself. As for he who says that Allāh is like bodies, he is an apostate regarding His names, and an anthropomorphist because of it.'¹³⁴

Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd ash-Shāfi'ī al-Mu'tazilī says:

As for he who says He is a body unlike bodies, in the sense opposite to an accident from which it is impossible to imagine an action coming, and denies it has the sense of 'body', and when he then extends this expression to mean that He is a thing unlike things, and an essence unlike essences, then their case is easy, because they differ in expression, they being: 'Alī ibn Manṣūr, as-Sakkāk, Yūnus ibn 'Abdi 'r-Raḥmān, and al-Faḍl ibn Shādhān, and all these are Shī'ī elders . . . And partisans of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam in our time claim that he did not believe in spiritual corporealism (*at-tajsīmu 'l-ma'nawī*),¹³⁵ but that he believed that He is a body unlike bodies, with the meaning which we mentioned for Yūnus, as-Sakkāk, and the others, although al-Ḥasan ibn Mūsā an-Nawbakhtī, who was one of the eminent Shī'ah, has had pure anthropomorphism attributed to him in the book *al-Ārā' wa 'd-diyānāt*.¹³⁶

What an-Nawbakhtī mentions he relates from Mu'tazilī adversaries of Hishām, some of whom al-Murtaḍā names in his preceding discussion. Ibnu 'l-Jawzī spoke about him and his

¹³⁴ *Ibid.*, vol.2, p.120.

¹³⁵ Which necessarily implies corporeality, and is opposed to literal corpor-ealism (*at-tajsīmu 'l-laḥẓī*), i.e., the declaration that God has a body in the material sense.

¹³⁶ *Sharḥ Nahju 'l-balāghah*, vol.3, p.228.

book, saying: "Abū Muḥammad an-Nawbakhtī mentions, on the authority of al-Jāhīz, on the authority of an-Nazzām . . ." ¹³⁷ but Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd leaves out the chain of transmission, for obvious reasons.

The Shaykh al-Mufīd states:

Truly Allāh knows everything that is, prior to its existence, and there is no event which he does not know before its occurrence . . . This is a doctrine of the entire Imāmiyyah, and we do not recognize that which the Mu'tazilah relate from Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam with regard to a difference of opinion [i.e., the attribution to him which was mentioned previously, that he said God knows of events after their occurrence, the doctrine which Jahm held]. According to us this is a complete fabrication of theirs about him, and an error of those Shī'ī who blindly follow them in it and state it on his authority. We find no listed book or established meeting [in which he explicitly clarifies his view concerning God's knowledge], and his statements on the fundamentals of the Imāmate and concomitant issues demonstrate the opposite of what the adversaries narrated from him. ¹³⁸

Thus it appears that the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah were more lenient about 'a body unlike bodies', and the Imāms, peace be upon them, stricter; I have already cited my opinion about the reason for this strictness.

22

THE OPPOSITION OF THE NON-IMĀMĪS TO HISHĀM'S OPINION

There is a body of evidence which offers convincing proof of

¹³⁷ *Talbīs Iblīs*, p.83.

¹³⁸ *Awā'ilu 'l-maqālāt fi 'l-madhāhib wa 'l-mukhtārāt*, Tabriz, 2nd printing, 1371, pp.21-22.

the innocence of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam of that which his adversaries attributed to him regarding corporeality and anthropomorphism, and, moreover, that his statement 'a body unlike bodies' did not find favour with the Imāms.

1. Our scholars relate that Hishām retracted his statement 'a body unlike bodies' after the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, criticized him for it.¹³⁹

2. A statement by Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam which al-Kulaynī transmits in the chapter on the falsity of the doctrine that God can be seen with ocular vision (*ibtālu 'r-ru'yah*), in the context of the *ḥadīth* of the Imāms, peace be upon them, which the distinguished al-Majlisī explains with his statement:

Because he was one of the greatest followers of the *ma'sūmīn* (the infallible ones), peace be upon them, [the statement by Hishām] was well regarded because it was taken from them.¹⁴⁰

In this statement, Hishām proves the impossibility of seeing God under any circumstance, as ocular sight is incapable of fixing upon anything besides bodies. He states at the end of it: 'Allāh is above comparison with anything'.¹⁴¹ If Hishām was among those who believed in corporeality then it would not have been possible for him to say what he said.

3. His statement, which aṣ-Ṣadūq narrates on his authority, in reply to someone who asked: "In what manner do you know your Lord?" He stated: "I know Allāh, exalted be His greatness, through my soul, because it is the closest thing to me," and then gave proof through the compoundedness of his body and the principles according to which it was constructed. Then he said:

¹³⁹ al-Mufīd, *al-Fuṣūlu 'l-mukhtārah*, vol.2, pp.284-5; al-Karājīkī, *Kanzu 'l-fawā'id*, pp.198-9; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.290; vol.10, p.452; *Mir'ātu 'l-'uqūl*, vol.2, p.5.

¹⁴⁰ *Mir'ātu 'l-'uqūl*, vol.1, pp.341-2.

¹⁴¹ *al-Kāfī*, "Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd", vol.1, pp.99-100, no.269.

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It is impossible for there to be a composition for which there is no composer, and the stability of a form without a former; I know that [my body] has a creator who created it, and a former who formed it, different from it in all its aspects [i.e., not having that which is composed of parts, because they entail imperfection and need]. Allāh has said: *And in yourselves, can you not see?* (adh-Dhāriyāt, 51:21).¹⁴²

4. We have already listed the names of those of Hishām's books which deal with Unicity and the discussion related to it, such as the *Kitābu 'd-Dalālah 'alā ḥadathi (hudūthi) 'l-ajsām* – according to aṭ-Ṭūsī: *al-ashyā'* instead of *al-ajsām*.¹⁴³ How could someone who describes Allāh as a body write a book in which he maintains that bodies are inherently created and incipient and not eternally pre-existent.

However, this book, like Hishām's other books, and like the great mass of books by Imāmī scholars written during the first four centuries, has not come down to us; anyone who refers to the well known catalogues of Imāmī books – the catalogue of the Shaykhu 'ṭ-Ṭāifah aṭ-Ṭūsī and that of an-Najāshī – will find that ninety per cent of the familiar books whose names are listed in them have perished, and no trace of them remains except for their titles listed in the catalogues. I have described some of the reasons for this in my biography of the Shaykhu 'ṭ-Ṭāifah aṭ-Ṭūsī in the introduction to the "Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd" from al-Kulaynī's *al-Kāfī*, referring to his famous library which the adversaries burned many times, just as they did others.

There remains before us no route to the study of Hishām via

¹⁴² *at-Tawḥīd*, p.289; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, pp.49-50.

¹⁴³ an-Najāshī, *al-Fihrist*, p.304; aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.204; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.224; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*; p.115; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.232-3; *Īdāḥu 'l-maknūn*, vol.1, p.476; *Hadiyyatu 'l-'arifīn*, vol.2, p.507; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.8, p.254.

the many different books he wrote, except to be guided by their titles to their contents, and from this tiny ray of light to be guided back to the doctrines, which the author expounded in them. From a study of Hishām's books we are able to judge that he argued with atheists (*zanādiqah*) and refuted them, argued with dualists, and attacked the materialism which existed in those days, and which was expressed by upholders of natural explanations (*tabāyi'*). Despite all this we find some adversaries who accused him and his followers of atheism, and some who accused them of having taken their beliefs from dualists.

5. That which will follow is a biography of Hishām ibn Sālim, whom Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam opposed because the doctrines he espoused were based on *ḥadīths* which were untrue or which he had not correctly understood. Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam charged him that these opinions only led him to believe in corporeality, which Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam refuted.

23

THE INCORRECTNESS OF ATTRIBUTING VIEWS ON CORPOREALITY AND ANTHROPOMORPHISM TO HISHĀM IBN SĀLIM

Here we shall consider Abū Muḥammad, Hishām ibn Sālim al-Jawālīqī, al-Kūfī. His Imāmī biographers say of him:

Hishām ibn Sālim was a client of Bishr ibn Marwān from the capture of al-Jūzajān,¹⁴⁴ conquered in the year 32/653 during the caliphate of 'Uthmān ibn 'Affān.¹⁴⁵ It is narrated of him on the authority of the two Imāms aṣ-Ṣādiq and al-Kāzīm, peace be upon them, that he was trustworthy, veracious in belief, and so well-known for his

¹⁴⁴ The name of a region lying between Balkh, to the west of it, and Marw ar-Rūdh: see *Mu'jamu 'l-buldān*, vol.2, p.182; *ar-Rawḍu 'l-mī'tār*, p.182; *The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate*, p.423.

¹⁴⁵ aṭ-Ṭabarī, vol.1, pp.2900-1; *Futūḥu 'l-buldān*, vol.3, pp.503-4.

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attachment to *wilāyah* that none can deny it.¹⁴⁶

His patron, Bishr ibn Marwān ibn al-Ḥakam al-Umawī (30/651–75/694) ruled Kūfah for his brother, the caliph 'Abdu 'l-Malik, in the first year of his reign, 71/691, and then Baṣrah and Kūfah were brought under him in 12.74/4.694. His reign lasted only a few months, and he died at the beginning of 75/694.¹⁴⁷ It is inevitable that we pause, if briefly, on this portion of Hishām's life, since it has a strong bearing on what we shall say about his opinions and the nature of the *ḥadīth*, which he relied on in the doctrines, he held.

It is apparent that the person who was captured on the day of the conquest of al-Jūzajān was Abū Hishām Sālim and not Hishām himself, since it is extremely unlikely that Hishām's life – no matter what date we assign to the beginning of his life – could have stretched from 32/653, the year of the conquest of al-Jūzajān, to after the death of the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, in 148/765 – whatever we designate as the length of time he remained alive after him. In addition, Sālim is an Arab name, which was commonly understood at that time as the name for a slave, and this naming would have been incorrect unless the captive on the day of the conquest of al-Jūzajān had been the father of Hishām who was then given an Arabic name.

Perhaps the attribution of clientage which the Shaykhu 't-Ṭāifah at-Ṭūsī cites for Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, 'al-Ju'fī, their patron,¹⁴⁸ was what Hishām inherited from his father Sālim, because those who captured him were from the tribe of al-Ju'fī,

¹⁴⁶ an-Najāshī, p.305; al-Kishshī, p.281; al-Barqī, pp.34-35; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.234, 238; al-'Allāmah, *Khulāṣatu 'l-aqwāl*, p.179; Abū Dāwūd, p.368; *Mu'jam rijāli 'l-ḥadīth*, vol.19, pp.363-4.

¹⁴⁷ at-Ṭabarī, vol.2, pp.816, 822, 834, 862; Ibnu 'l-Athīr, vol.4, pp.331, 347; *al-Ma'ārif*, pp.355, 458, 571; Khalīfah, *at-Tārīkh*, vol.1, pp.341, 345, 349, 384, 385; *Tārīkh Dimashq*, vol.10, pp.111-29; *Siyar a'lāmi 'n-nubalā'*, vol.4, pp.145-6.

¹⁴⁸ *ar-Rijāl*, p.329, no.17.

the Qaḥṭānī tribe of the Yemen. This does not contradict what Hishām's biographers mention regarding his being a client of Bishr ibn Marwān al-Umawī al-Qurashī al-‘Adnānī. It suggests that Hishām himself was a client of Bishr, because he had purchased him, and does not suggest anything more than that.

He broke his former clientage, which his father bequeathed to him, and perhaps this is the clue to the neglect by all of his biographers to mention his former, broken clientage, and their being satisfied to mention the subsequent one alone.

I do not know when Bishr purchased him, or how old he was on the day he was purchased, but it is safe to say that at that time Hishām was young; rather it is probable that he had not even reached puberty when his patron Bishr died in 75/694. It is reliably stated that Hishām was not an Imāmī when he was purchased, since it would have been odd for his previous patrons to have sold a Shī‘ī slave to Bishr ibn Marwān, the Ummayyad, who was far from being a Shī‘ī. It is even more unlikely that it be supposed that they were Shī‘ī and that Bishr followed them in faith. It is clear from this that he could not then have been a Shī‘ī, but that he held Ummayyad beliefs after he became their client.

It is evident from his opinions, which I shall mention subsequently, that he was oriented towards the hearing of *ḥadīth*; it is also evident from these opinions, and due to the fact of his non-Imāmī upbringing, that he was oriented towards non-Imāmī *ḥadīth*. His views and thoughts were stamped by the *ḥadīth*, which he heard, to the point where it was difficult for him to rid himself of these opinions. It is also evident that Hishām ibn Sālim, after many years, perhaps when he had reached fifty years of age or more, chose the Imāmī school. This is confirmed by the fact that the first of the Imāms, peace be upon them, with whom he came into contact was the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him (83/702–148/765), although he was alive at the time

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of as-Sajjād (38/659–94/712) and during the period of al-Bāqir (57/676–114/733), peace be upon them, since if we establish Hishām's age at the death of Bishr in 75/694 as being ten – and in my opinion this is the lowest estimate of his age – then Hishām was fifty at the time of al-Bāqir's death. His abstention from contact with the Imām of his time during this long period, and the delay of contact until the period of the Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, has no believable explanation other than that he did not believe in the Imāmate until aṣ-Ṣādiq's time, at which time he joined him.

Hishām's life was long, and he lived up to the time of the Imām al-Kāzīm, peace be upon him (129/746–183/799).

24

A BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF HISHĀM AL-JAWĀLĪQĪ

Hishām ibn Sālim is the second of the two Hishāms to whom they attributed the doctrine of pure corporealism and anthropomorphism; we shall review what has been cited in both Imāmī and non-Imāmī *ḥadīth*.

1. A Tradition from Muḥammad ibn Ḥakīm, who said:

I described for Abu 'l-Ḥasan, peace be upon him, the belief of Hishām al-Jawālīqī, and what he says about the long-haired young man (*ash-shābu 'l-muwaffar*) . . .¹⁴⁹

A Tradition from Ibrāhīm ibn Muḥammad al-Khazzāz and Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn who said:

We called upon Abu 'l-Ḥasan ar-Riḍā, peace be upon him, and we related to him that Muḥammad, may Allāh bless him and his family and [grant them salvation], saw his Lord in the form of a long-haired young man, of the age of boys of thirty years. We said: 'Hishām ibn Sālim and his

¹⁴⁹ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, p.106, no.289; *at-Tawḥīd*, p.97; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.300.

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renowned companion aṭ-Ṭāq¹⁵⁰ and al-Maythamī¹⁵¹ stated that He is hollow in the centre but the rest is firm.¹⁵²

A Tradition from Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn Abī Naṣr al-Bazanī from ar-Riḍā, peace be upon him. He said:

He said to me: 'O Aḥmad! What is the difference between you and the followers of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam with respect to Unicity?' I said: 'May I be made your ransom! We believe in the form because of the *ḥadīth* which narrates: "The Prophet of Allāh, may Allāh bless him and his family [and grant them salvation], saw his Lord in the form of a young man", and Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam believes in denying [that God has a] body.'¹⁵³

This indicates that Hishām denied the form, because its assertion would require that Allāh has a body.

2. al-Kishshī relates from 'Abdu 'l-Malik ibn Hishām al-Ḥannāṭ that he said to Abu 'l-Ḥasan ar-Riḍā, peace be upon him:

May I be made your ransom! Hishām ibn Sālim claims that Allāh, the Great, the Exalted, is a form, and that Ādam was created in the image of the Lord, and he describes this and that – and I indicated my flank and the hair on my head¹⁵⁴ – and Yūnus¹⁵⁵ a client of the Āl Yaḳṫīn and Hishām ibn al-

¹⁵⁰ Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn 'Alī an-Nu'mānī al-Bajalī, Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, al-Kūfī (d. c 160/777) the trustworthy and famous theologian.

¹⁵¹ 'Alī ibn Ismā'īl ibn Shu'ayb ibn Maytham, Abu 'l-Ḥasan al-Maythamī.

¹⁵² *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, pp.100-2, no.272; *at-Tawḥīd*, pp.113-4; *al-Biḥār*, vol.4, pp.39-41.

¹⁵³ 'Alī ibn Ibrāhīm, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.1, p.20; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.307; *Tafsīru 'l-burhān*, vol.1, p.38; *Nūru 'th-thaqalayn*, vol.5, p.155.

¹⁵⁴ i.e., Hishām ibn Sālim believes that God has hair and limbs like a hand and a leg, and 'Abdu 'l-Malik mentions this by way of allusion, dreading the direct expression of such things about God, especially in front of the Imām, peace be upon him.

¹⁵⁵ Yūnus ibn 'Abdi 'r-Raḥmān, a student of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam.

Ḥakam claim that God is a thing unlike [other] things, that things are distinct from Him and He from things. They claim that the substantiation of a thing is a body, that He is a body unlike [other] bodies, a thing unlike things, substantiated and existent, not absent or non-existent, excepted from two restrictions: the restriction of invalidity,¹⁵⁶ and the restriction of anthropomorphism; and which of these two beliefs should I believe?

He, peace be upon him, said:

[Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam] meant substantiation, and [Hishām ibn Sālim] compared his Lord with a created thing, may Allāh – Who has no likeness, no equal, no model, no parallel, and is not included in the attribute of created beings – be raised above this. Do not believe the like of what Hishām ibn Sālim believed; believe what was stated by the client of the clan of Yaqtīn [Yūnus] and his companion [Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam].¹⁵⁷

3. Hishām ibn Sālim al-Jawālīqī and his followers used to say: "God is in human form, the uppermost part of Him is hollow, and the lowerest part is solid; He is a radiant light shining with a white light, He has five senses like humans, a hand, a leg, a nose, an ear, and a mouth, and He has abundant black hair which is a black light [since all of Him is light, and His body is white light, His abundant hair is black light], but he has no flesh nor blood,¹⁵⁸ and they affirm that he has every human limb

¹⁵⁶ *Ḥaddu 'l-ibṭāl*, i.e., the invalidity of the divine adjectives like Living, Powerful, Knowing, Hearing, and Seeing, signifying their meanings, because the affirmation of signification entails corporealism and anthropomorphism, and this judgement, i.e., that it is invalid, comes in many of the Imāmī *ḥadīth*, and this is what is meant by the agnosticism (*ta'tīl*) of such as the Jahmiyyah.

¹⁵⁷ al-Kishshī, pp.284-5; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.237.

¹⁵⁸ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.105, 259; ash-Shahristānī, vol.1, p.185; *al-Farq bayna 'l-firaq*, pp.51, 320-1; *al-Ansāb*, f. 590b; *al-Lubāb*, vol.3, p.389; *Minhāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, pp.203, 259; and other sources.

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except private parts and a beard",¹⁵⁹ and they deny, despite that, that He is a body,¹⁶⁰ and they relate that this was a view of Mu'minu ṭ-Ṭāq and 'Alī ibn Maytham.¹⁶¹

But ash-Shahristānī and aṣ-Ṣafadī relate on the authority of Mu'minu ṭ-Ṭāq that he, stated: "Allāh is a light in the form of a divine human" and refuted that He was a body, but he said: "It has been related in a Tradition: 'Allāh created Ādam in His image' and 'in the image of the Merciful', and the Tradition must be said to be true."¹⁶² ash-Shahristānī adds: "What is related on his authority with regard to anthropomorphism is without truth."¹⁶³

Nevertheless, they relate that he believed in determinism and anthropomorphism, both he and his followers, the 'Shayṭāniyyah',¹⁶⁴ and that 'truly Allāh is a limited and finite body.'¹⁶⁵

They mention 'ash-Shayṭāniyyah' and 'al-Mushabbihah,' and say: "They are affiliated to Shayṭānu ṭ-Ṭāq, and it is narrated from him that he believes in many of the anthropomorphic statements of the Rawāfiḍ [?],"¹⁶⁶

From another stand-point, they cite in the biography of Mu'minu ṭ-Ṭāq: 'He was a Mu'tazilī',¹⁶⁷ and 'he shared the innovation of both the Mu'tazilah and the Rāfiḍah.'¹⁶⁸

4. They add to these Yūnus ibn 'Abdi'r-Raḥmān al-Yaqṭinī, al-Baghdādī (c 125/742–208/823-4), the well-known Imāmī Traditionist and theologian, a student of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam. They

¹⁵⁹ al-Maqrīzī, *al-Khiṭaṭ*, vol.2, p.348-9.

¹⁶⁰ Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, p.224.

¹⁶¹ *Ibid.*, vol.3, p.224; *al-Ḥūru 'l-ʿīn*, p.149.

¹⁶² *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.187; *al-Wāfi bi 'l-wafayāt*, vol.4, p.104.

¹⁶³ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.186.

¹⁶⁴ *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol.5, p.132.

¹⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, vol.1, p.85.

¹⁶⁶ *al-Ansāb*, vol.8, pp.238-9; *al-Lubāb*, vol.2, p.225.

¹⁶⁷ *al-Wāfi bi 'l-wafayāt*, vol.4, p.104.

¹⁶⁸ al-Maqrīzī, *al-Khiṭaṭ*, vol.2, pp.348, 353.

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say about him: 'He was one of the Shī'ī anthropomorph-ists',¹⁶⁹ and: 'Yūnus went too far in the matter of anthropomorphism',¹⁷⁰ 'and he claimed that the angels who bear the throne also carry the Creator',¹⁷¹ 'and he concludes that He is predicated by His words: *and eight will hold the throne of your Lord above them on that day* [al-Hāqqah 69:17]',¹⁷² 'since it has been narrated in the Tradition: the angels are sometimes weighed down from the pressure of the greatness of Allāh on the throne.'¹⁷³

25

VIEWS ON CORPOREALITY AND ANTHROPOMORPHISM
ATTRIBUTED TO AL-JAWĀLĪQĪ

It is clear that these views, whether correctly attributed or not, are reactions to the following *ḥadīth* which these people heard, which they believed to be correct, which they understood in their ostensive meaning. These are the *ḥadīth*, which are indicated in the doctrines themselves.

1. A Tradition from Ummu 'ṭ-Ṭufayl, the wife of Ubayy ibn Ka'b, the well known companion of the prophet, who said:

I heard the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, mention that he saw his Lord in a dream in the form of a long-haired young man (*shāb muwaffar*), in green, on a carpet of gold, and that on his feet there were two golden slippers.

¹⁶⁹ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.188; *al-Khiṭaṭ*, vol.2, p.353.

¹⁷⁰ *al-Farq bayna 'l-firaq*, p.53; *al-Ansāb*, f. 603b; *al-Lubāb*, vol.3, p.421.

¹⁷¹ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.106; *Minhāju 's-sunnah*, vol.1, p.207; *al-Farq*, p.216; *at-Tabṣīr fi 'd-dīn*, p.43.

¹⁷² *al-Farq*, p.53; *al-Ansāb*, f. 603b; *al-Lubāb*, vol.3, p.421.

¹⁷³ *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.188.

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By *muwaffar* he means 'having *wafrah*',¹⁷⁴ and by 'green' he means 'in green clothing'.¹⁷⁵

It is stated in the biography of Abu 'l-Ḥasan, 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn Bashshār al-Baghdādī, al-Ḥanbalī (d. 313/ 925), the ascetic Traditionist, who they say had the power of miracles and that whoever loved him was a follower of the *sunnah*, and whose tomb, many centuries after his death, was apparently famous in Baghdad and visited by the people:¹⁷⁶

Aḥmad al-Barmakī said: 'I asked Abu 'l-Ḥasan ibn Bashshār about the *ḥadīth* of Ummu 't-Ṭufayl and the *ḥadīth* of Ibn 'Abbās [to follow] concerning ocular vision [of God], and he said: "Both of them are correct." A man then objected, and said: "These *ḥadīths* should not be cited at a time like this!" Then Ibn Bashshār said: "Islam is being extinguished".'¹⁷⁷

The *ḥadīth* of Ibn 'Abbās, who stated:

The Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, said: 'I saw my Lord in the form of a young man with long hair.'¹⁷⁸

¹⁷⁴ *Wafrah*: the hair massed on the head, especially that which falls onto the ears: *al-Qāmūs*, vol.2, p.155; *Tāju 'l-'arūs*, vol.3, p.605; *Lisānu 'l-'Arab*, vol.5, pp.288-9; *al-Mu'jamu 'l-waṣīṭ*, vol.2, p.1046.

¹⁷⁵ al-Bayhaqī, *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, pp.446-7; *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.13, p.311; *Usdu 'l-ghābah*, vol.7, p.356; and many other sources. For adh-Dhahabī's opinion on the *ḥadīth* see: *Siyar a 'lāmi 'n-nubalā'*, vol.10, pp.602-4; as-Suyūfī defended its veracity (*al-La 'ālī al-maṣnū'ah*, vol.1, pp.28-29).

¹⁷⁶ *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.12, pp.66-67; *al-Muntaẓam*, vol.6, pp.198-9; *Shadharātu 'dh-dhahab*, vol.2, p.267; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Ḥanābilah*, vol.2, pp.57-63; *al-Minhaju 'l-Aḥmad*, vol.2, pp.7-11.

¹⁷⁷ *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Ḥanābilah*, vol.2, p.59; *al-Minhaju 'l-Aḥmad*, vol.2, p.8.

¹⁷⁸ at-Ṭabarānī narrates it in *as-Sunnah* from Abū Zur'ah ar-Rāzī, 'Ubaydul-lāh ibn 'Abdi 'l-Karīm (200/815–264/878), one of the *imāms* of *ḥadīth*, who stated: "It is a correct *ḥadīth*, which only the Mu'tazilah deny"; *Kanzu 'l-'ummāl*, vol.1, p.204; *Muntakhab* [Gloss to Ibn Ḥanbal's *Musnad*] vol.1, p.113; *al-La 'ālī al-maṣnū'ah*, vol.1, pp.29-30).

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The *ḥadīth* of Mu'ādh ibn 'Afrā':

The Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, related that he saw the Lord of the Worlds, the Exalted, the Glorious, in Paradise, wearing a crown which dazzled the vision.¹⁷⁹

The *ḥadīth* of Ibn 'Abbās from the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, who said:

I saw my Lord in the form of a beardless young man, on whom there was a red garment.¹⁸⁰

And another *ḥadīth* from him, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, in which he said:

I saw my Lord, the Exalted, the Glorious, a young man, beardless, with short, curly hair, on whom there was a red garment.¹⁸¹

And many other *ḥadīths*.

2. As for the Prophet's seeing his Lord during his night journey to Paradise (*al-isrā'*), there is nothing more than that which is related by the non-Imāmī sects about it:

Ibn 'Abbās said, and he swore by this: '[The Prophet] saw his Lord with his eyes twice.'¹⁸²

al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī used to swear by Allāh: 'Indeed

¹⁷⁹ *Kanzu 'l-'ummāl*, vol.1, p.204; *Muntakhab*, vol.1, p.113; *al-La'ālī al-maṣnū'ah*, vol.1, p.30; from aṭ-Ṭabarānī in *as-Sunnah*, and al-Baghawī took it from him, as in *al-Iṣābah*, vol.6, p.140.

¹⁸⁰ *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.11, p.214; *al-La'ālī al-maṣnū'ah*, vol.1, p.30.

¹⁸¹ *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Ḥanābilah*, vol.2, pp.45-46, where its veracity is defended.

¹⁸² at-Tirmidhī, vol.5, p.395; *al-Mustadrak 'ala 'ṣ-Ṣaḥīḥayn*, vol.1, p.65; *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifāti 'r-rabb*, pp.200, 205; Ibn Kathīr, *at-Taḥfīr*, vol.3, p.304; vol.7, p.424; *Faḥḥu 'l-bārī*, vol.10, p.230; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.6, p.124; *Faḥḥu 'l-qadīr*, vol.5, p.110; and many other sources.

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Muḥammad saw his Lord.¹⁸³

‘Ikrimah used to say: 'Yes, he saw Him, then he saw Him, and then he saw Him', until his life ended.¹⁸⁴

And an-Nawawī said: "A group of commentators hold the view that he saw Him with his eyes; it is the belief of Anas, ‘Ikrimah, al-Ḥasan, and ar-Rabī' . . ." ¹⁸⁵

Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal was asked about this, and he said: 'I shall say, with the *ḥadīth* of Ibn ‘Abbās: "With his eyes he saw his Lord, he saw Him, he saw Him", until the life of Aḥmad comes to an end.'¹⁸⁶

an-Nawawī said:

What is quoted by most of the scholars is: 'Truly the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, saw his Lord with the two eyes of his head on the night of al-Isrā' . . . He, the Exalted, the Glorious in stature, will be visible on the Day of Reckoning to the whole of creation: men and *jinn*, male and female, believer or unbeliever, and the angels, Gabriel and others.'¹⁸⁷

As for the greater part of the *ḥadīth* themselves, I shall only mention one of them, which was narrated by Muḥammad ibn Ishāq, the renowned Traditionist and biographer, with its chain

¹⁸³ *at-Tawḥīd*, pp.199-200; an-Nawawī, *Sharḥ Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim*, vol.3, p.5; *Faṭḥu 'l-bārī*, vol.10, p.231; 'Umdatū 'l-qārī, vol.19, p.198; etc.

¹⁸⁴ at-Ṭabarī, *at-Taḥṣīn*, vol.27, p.28; *ash-Sharī'ah*, p.496; Ibn Kathīr, *at-Taḥṣīn*, vol.7, p.425; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.6, p.124.

¹⁸⁵ *Sharḥ Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim*, vol.3, p.6; *al-Mirqāt sharḥu 'l-mishkāt*, vol.5, p.306.

¹⁸⁶ *ash-Shifā*, vol.1, p.260; al-Khafājī, *Sharḥu 'sh-Shifā*, vol.2, p.292; al-Qārī, *Sharḥu 'sh-Shifā*, vol.1, p.422; *ar-Rawḍu 'l-unuf*, vol.3, p.445; *Sharḥu 'l-mawāhibi 'l-laddunniyyah*, vol.6, p.120.

¹⁸⁷ *Sharḥ Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim*, vol.3, p.5; *al-Mirqāt*, vol.5, p.308; *as-Sīrah al-Ḥalabiyyah*, vol.1, p.410; refer in particular to al-Qāḍī 'Ayyād, *ash-Shifā*, vol.1, pp.257-60; al-Khafājī, *Sharḥu 'sh-Shifā*, vol.2, pp.285-92; al-Qārī, *Sharḥu 'sh-Shifā*, vol.1, pp.416-23.

of authority from 'Abdullāh ibn Abī Salamah, who said:

'Abdullāh ibn 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb queried 'Abdullāh ibn 'Abbās, asking him: 'Did Muḥammad, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, see his Lord?' Ibn 'Abbās replied to him: 'Yes.' 'Abdullāh ibn 'Umar retorted: 'Then how did he see Him?' And he answered: 'Truly, he saw Him.' – Yūnus [one of the narrators from Ibn Ishaq] elaborated in his narration: ' . . . in the form of an adolescent, in a green meadow, beneath Him a carpet of gold, on a golden chair, held by four angels: one in the form of a man, one in the form of a bull, one in the form of an eagle, and one in the form of a lion.'¹⁸⁸

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THE OPINIONS OF HISHĀM AL-JAWĀLĪQĪ
TAKEN FROM NON-IMĀMĪ *HADĪTH*

3. As for what has been said in which mention is made of limbs and extremities (which are either figurative, like that which is narrated in the Holy Qur'ān and many *ḥadīth* of the *sunnah*, which are given a literal sensory meaning either through inattention or inadvertance, or that which is ostensibly literal and only permits interpretation with difficulty, of which there are also many in the *sunnah*) there are many examples, some of which have been previously indicated in the examples we cited from the doctrines of non-Imāmī Traditionists. In what has been reported which we have not cited is the statement of the

¹⁸⁸ *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, p.443; *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifāti 'r-rabb*, p.198; *ash-Sharī'ah*, pp.494-5; *ash-Shifā*, vol.1, p.258; al-Khafājī, *Sharḥu 'sh-Shifā*, vol.2, p.287; al-Qārī, *Sharḥu sh-Shifā*, vol.1, p.418; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.6, p.124; etc.

Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his family and grant them salvation, about what they would see of Him:

[On the Day of Judgement] our Lord shall reveal His leg, and all male and female believers shall fall prostrate before it.¹⁸⁹

And that which has been related in numerous *ḥadīth* with various wordings:

It is said *unto Hell*: 'Are you full?' And it replies. 'Are there any more?' [Qāf, 50:30], and it is not full until the Lord/Lord of the Worlds/the Merciful puts His foot into it and compresses some of it against the rest (*yuzwī ba 'da-hā ilā ba 'd*, and there is a variant reading: *yuzwā ba 'da-hā ilā ba 'd*) and it says: 'Enough (*qaṭi, qaṭi, qaṭi/qadi, qadi, qadi/qadī, qadī, qadī/qadnī, qadnī, qadnī*)! Your Power!'¹⁹⁰

4. The *ḥadīth* of Abū Hurayrah:

Allāh created Adam in His image, His height being sixty cubits.¹⁹¹

The *ḥadīth* of 'Abdullāh ibn 'Umar:

Do not distort the meaning, for truly the son of Adam was created in the image of the Merciful.¹⁹²

And the *ḥadīth* concerning the Day of Judgement (*al-qiyāmah*):

Allāh will come to them [the believers on the Day of Judgement] in His form, which they know [after He has

¹⁸⁹ al-Bukhārī, vol.6, p.198; vol.9, p.159; ad-Dārimī, *as-Sunan*, vol.2, pp.326-7.

¹⁹⁰ al-Bukhārī, vol.6, p.173; vol.8, p.168; vol.9, pp.143, 164; Muslim, vol.8, pp.151-2; at-Tirmidhī, vol.4, pp.691-2; vol.5, p.390; Aḥmad, vol.2, pp.276, 314, 369, 507; vol.3, pp.13, 78, 134, 141, 234; ad-Dārimī, vol.2, pp.340-1; at-Ṭabarī, *at-Taḥfīf*, Būlāq ed., vol.26, pp.105-7; etc.

¹⁹¹ al-Bukhārī, vol.8, p.62; Muslim, vol.8, p.149; Aḥmad, vol.2, pp.315, 323; *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifāti 'r-rabb*, pp.39-41; *ash-Sharī'ah*, p.314.

¹⁹² *at-Tawḥīd*, p.38; *ash-Sharī'ah*, p.315; see the defence of the soundness of this *ḥadīth* by Ibn Rāhwayh, Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, and adh-Dhahabī, *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.2, pp.419-20.

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come to them in a form which they did not recognize, and they rejected Him], and He will say: 'I am your Lord!' And they will say: 'You are our Lord.'¹⁹³

5. Regarding place, the most curious thing said about it is what was said about 'the Throne (*al-'Arsh*)' and 'the Chair (*al-Kursī*)' in His words: *His chair encompasses the heavens and the earth* [al-Baqarah, 2:255] in the statement of Ibn 'Abbās:

The chair/His chair is the place of His foot/two feet, and the throne – only Allāh decrees its destiny.¹⁹⁴

There is a *ḥadīth* with the same meaning related by 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb, Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī, Abū Dharr, and Ibn Mas'ūd.¹⁹⁵

Concerning the sitting of Allāh above the throne:

Truly Allāh is above His throne; and truly it gives the sound of a newly loaded saddle, as the one who rides it weighs it down.¹⁹⁶

And He sits upon it, and only a distance of four fingers breadth remains.¹⁹⁷

Allāh has prepared and set aside this excess space of four

¹⁹³ al-Bukhārī, vol.9, p.156; Muslim, vol.1, p.113.

¹⁹⁴ *al-Mustadrak 'ala 'ṣ-Ṣaḥīḥayn*, vol.2, p.282; al-Ḥākim and adh-Dhahabī authenticated it, *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifāti 'r-rabb*, pp.107, 108; *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.9, pp.251-2; *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, p.354; Ibn Kathīr, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.1, p.457; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.1, p.327; *Faṭḥu 'l-qadīr*, vol.1, p.273; *Rūḥu 'l-ma'ānī*, vol.3, p.10, vol.16, p.154.

¹⁹⁵ aṭ-Ṭabarī, *at-Tafsīr*, Būlāq ed., vol.3, p.7; *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, pp.353-4; ad-Dārimī, *as-Sunan*, vol.2, p.325; *al-Mustadrak 'ala 'ṣ-Ṣaḥīḥayn*, vol.2, pp.364-5; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.3, p.298; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Ḥanābilah*, vol.1, p.134. Many of the ancient commentators also explain it in this way; see aṭ-Ṭabarī, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.3, p.7.

¹⁹⁶ Abū Dāwūd, *as-Sunan*, vol.4, p.232; *at-Tawḥīd wa ithbāt ṣifāti 'r-rabb*, pp.103-4; *ash-Sharī'ah*, p.293; aṭ-Ṭabarī, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.3, p.8; *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, pp.417-9.

¹⁹⁷ ad-Dārimī, refutation of Bishr al-Marīsī, *'Aqāidu 's-salaf*, p.432; aṭ-Ṭabarī, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.3, p.8; *'Awnu 'l-ma'būd*, vol.13, pp.32-33.

fingers breadth for Muḥammad, may Allāh bless him and his family and grant them salvation, in order that he may sit upon it on the Day of Judgement;¹⁹⁸ that is the explanation of His statement: *It may be that your Lord will raise you to a praised position* [al-Isrā', 17:79].¹⁹⁹

aṭ-Ṭabarī gave a blistering defense of the soundness of this explanation and of the sitting of Allāh,²⁰⁰ and al-Qurṭubī said: "aṭ-Ṭabarī stood up for its admissibility with a plethora of words."²⁰¹

Abū Bakr an-Naqqāsh narrated from Abū Dāwūd as-Sijistānī, Sulaymān ibn al-Ash'ath (202/817–275/889), the famous author of the *Sunan*, that he said: "Whoever denies this *ḥadīth* [the *ḥadīth* about the sitting of Allāh] stands accused [of apostasy and being outside the religion] by us; knowledgeable people shall continue to believe in it."²⁰²

Ibnu 'l-Qayyim al-Jawziyyah, the well-known student of Ibn Taymiyyah, related from the Qāḍī Abū Ya'lā al-Ḥanbalī that he stated:

al-Marwazī composed a book on the virtue of the Prophet, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, in which he mentions his being seated on the throne.

The Qāḍī mentions that it is a belief [of a group of twenty-seven, whose names he cites], and Ibnu 'l-Qayyim adds:

¹⁹⁸ *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.8, p.52; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Hanābilah*, vol.2, p.67.

¹⁹⁹ ad-Dārimī, vol.2, p.233; *ash-Shifā*, vol.1, p.291; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *Zādu 'l-masīr*, vol.5, p.76; *ad-Durru 'l-manthūr*, vol.1, p.328; vol.4, p.198; *Sharḥu 'l-Mawāhibi 'l-laddunniyyah*, vol.8, pp.367-8.

²⁰⁰ *at-Taḥṣīr*, Būlāq ed., vol.15, pp.99-100.

²⁰¹ *Aḥkāmū 'l-Qur'ān*, vol.10, p.311.

²⁰² al-Qurṭubī, *Aḥkāmū 'l-Qur'ān*, vol.10, p.311; Abū Ḥayyān, *al-Baḥru 'l-muḥīṭ*, vol.6, p.72; al-Qaṣṭalānī, *al-Mawāhibu 'l-laddunniyyah*, vol.2, p.411; az-Zurqānī, *Sharḥu 'l-Mawāhib*, vol.8, p.368; ash-Shawkānī, *Faṭḥu 'l-qadīr*, vol.3, p.252; al-Ālūsī, *Ruḥu 'l-ma'ānī*, vol.15, p.142.

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It is a belief of Ibn Jarīr aṭ-Ṭabarī, and of al-Mujāhid [ibn Jabr] the *imām* of all of them in *tafsīr*; and it is a belief of Abu 'l-Ḥasan ad-Dār Qutnī [too] . . .²⁰³

al-Marwazī is Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥajjāj, Abū Bakr al-Marwazī (al-Marwarūdhī) al-Baghdādī (c 200/816275/888), one of the greatest followers of Aḥmad ibn Ḥanbal, and the foremost among them for his piety and merit. Aḥmad was on intimate terms with him, and was at ease in his company; it was he who took charge of Aḥmad's body after he died and washed it. He narrated many matters on his authority, and substantiated authentic *ḥadīth* on his authority, as is stated in his biography.²⁰⁴

Because of this belief, and al-Marwazī's book about it, a bloody public disturbance took place in Baghdad, as Ibnu 'l-Athīr and others mention concerning the events of the year 317/929:

A great public altercation took place in Baghdad during this year between the followers of Abū Bakr al-Marwazī al-Ḥanbalī and others from among the general populace, and many soldiers became involved in it. The cause of it was that the followers of al-Marwazī said, in a commentary on His words: *It may be that your Lord will raise you to a praised position*, that Allāh will seat the Prophet, may Allāh bless him [and his family] and grant him [them] salvation, with Him on the throne, while the other side said: 'On the contrary, it is mediation (*shafā'ah*).'²⁰⁵ A public

²⁰³ Ibnu 'l-Qayyim, *Badāi' u 'l-fawā'id*, vol.4, pp.39-40.

²⁰⁴ *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.4, pp.424-5; *al-Muntaẓam*, vol.5, pt.2, pp.94-95; *Ṭabaqātu 'l-Ḥanābilah*, vol.1, pp.56-63; *al-Minhaju 'l-Aḥmad*, vol.1, pp. 172-4; *al-'Ibar*, vol.2, p.54; Ibn Kathīr, vol.11, p.54; *Shadharātu 'dh-dhahab*, vol.2, p.166; Ibnu 'l-Athīr, vol.7, p.435.

²⁰⁵ This is the explanation, which is agreed upon between the Shī'ah and many Sunnī scholars.

altercation ensued, and the parties did battle with each other, and there were many casualties among them.²⁰⁶

6. I have found no reasonable explanation for what has been attributed to al-Jawālīqī regarding his statement: 'Truly He is hollow at the centre, and the rest is *ṣamad*', except that he glossed *ṣamad* as 'solid', an interpretation that will be discussed subsequently, and that he found something which proved that Allāh's having limbs and extremities was contradictory with His being solid from head to foot. He went on to establish that He, praise be to Him, had every limb except pudendum and beard', and was compelled to divide Him into two parts: the higher one being hollow, and the lower one eternally solid, with no pudendum.

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WHAT IS RELATED FROM THE TWO HISHĀMS IS ALSO RELATED FROM NON-IMĀMĪS

It is appropriate to mention that what is attributed to Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and Hishām al-Jawālīqī, is attributed to others who pre-dated both of them or were their contemporaries.

1. Abu 'l-Ḥasan Muqātil ibn Sulaymān al-Azdī, al-Balkhī, al-Marwazī (c 70/689–150/767), who both heard and reported a great deal, and was particularly dedicated to commentary. He travelled throughout the Islamic lands (Marw, then Iraq, the Ḥijāz, Damascus) reporting and commenting on *ḥadīth* in Mecca, Baghdad and Beirut, and finally settled in Baṣrah, where he died. He became so famous for his commentary on the Holy Qur'ān that ash-Shāfi'ī said of him: "People are entirely dependent on Muqātil for commentary." He was one of those

²⁰⁶ Ibnu 'l-Athīr, vol.8, p.213; Ibn Kathīr, vol.11, p.162; Abu 'l-Fidā', vol.2, pp.74-75; Ibnu 'l-Wardī, vol.1, p.390; *Tārīkhu 'l-khulafā'*, p.384.

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who was given as an example of those who believed in pure corporealism and anthropomorphism, and of falseness in *ḥadīth*. He was an adversary of his compatriot, Jahm ibn Ṣafwān, religiously and politically. Ibn Ḥibbān stated:

He took from Jews and Christians knowledge of the Qur'ān, which corresponded with their Books, and he was an anthropomorphist, comparing the Lord with created beings.²⁰⁷

He and his followers stated:

Allāh is a body, and has *jummah*²⁰⁸ and is in human form, flesh and blood, hair and bone, having extremities and limbs, hands, legs, a head, eyes, and is solid; yet despite all this He does not resemble anything else, and nothing else resembles Him.²⁰⁹

al-Maḥdīsī and Nashwān al-Ḥimyarī added: "He is seven spans of His own span."²¹⁰ By 'followers of al-Muqātil' is meant all those followers of *ḥadīth* who were influenced by him and who held beliefs similar to his. Among these were:

a) His confederate (*rabīb*) Nūḥ ibn Abī Maryam (Yazīd), Abū 'Iṣmah al-Marwazī, al-Ḥanafī, the *qāḍī* of Marw (c 100/719–173/789), who heard and narrated a great amount, and studied jurisprudence with Abū Ḥanīfah; at-Tirmidhī and Ibn Mājah excerpted his *ḥadīth* concerning *tafsīr*. Muqātil married his mother and reared him, and Abū 'Iṣmah learned his ideas from him; they say about him what they say about his *shaykh* Muqātil.²¹¹

²⁰⁷ Ibn Ḥibbān, *Kitābu 'l-Majrūḥīn (aḍ-Ḍu'afā')*, vol.3, pp.14-16; *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.13, pp.160-9; *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.4, pp.172-5; *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.10, pp.279-85; and many sources.

²⁰⁸ = *wafrah*, see above note no.174 (*al-Mu'jamu 'l-wasīl*, vol.1, p.137).

²⁰⁹ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.213, 214, 258-9; *al-Fiṣal*, vol.4, p.205; *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol. 5, p. 141; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, p.224.

²¹⁰ *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol.1, p.85; vol.5, p.141; *al-Ḥūru 'l-'iyn*, p.149.

²¹¹ Ibn Ḥibbān, *aḍ-Ḍu'afā'*, vol.3, pp.48-49; *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.4, pp.279-80; *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.10, pp.486-9; etc.

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b) Abū 'Abdillāh, Nu'aym ibn Ḥammād ibn Mu'āwiyah al-A'war al-Khuzā'i, al-Marwazī, then al-Miṣrī (c 148/765–228/843), a distinguished Traditionist, was an *imām* of the *sunnah*. al-Bukhārī, Abū Dāwūd, at-Tirmidhī, and Ibn Mājah excerpted his *ḥadīth*; Muslim did the same in the preface to his *Ṣaḥīḥ*. He was brought from Egypt to Iraq during the caliphate of the 'Abbāsīd al-Mu'taṣim due to his denial of the doctrine of the createdness of the Qur'ān. He was imprisoned there until he died, and was buried in his chains, unshrouded, and without prayers being said for him.

He was a scribe for Abū 'Ismah, who raised and educated him, and he composed many books refuting the Jahmiyyah. They said about him what they said about his *shaykh*, although the only ones who explicitly denied him were ad-Dūlābī and al-Azdī because they considered him one of the martyrs of their Miḥnah, or Inquisition.²¹²

2. Abū Muthannah, Mu'ādh ibn Mu'ādh al-'Anbarī, al-Baṣrī, *qāḍī* of Baṣrah (119/737–196/812), one of the distinguished Traditionists whose reliability and explication of *ḥadīth* they trusted, among them the followers of the *sunnah* books and others.²¹³

One narrator said:

I questioned Mu'ādh al-'Anbarī, saying: 'Does He have a face?' And he replied: 'Yes.' So I brought up all the limbs, nose, mouth, chest, belly, but left off mentioning the genitals, gesturing towards my own with my hands, and

²¹² *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.13, pp.306-14; *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.4, pp.267-70; *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.10, pp.458-63; etc. Refer to the text stating that they followed Muqātil in anthropomorphism and corporealism, they and Dāwūd al-Jawāribī (to follow): *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.187; *Talbīs iblis*, p.86; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, p.224. See also Watt, W. M., *The Formative Period of Islamic Thought*, p. 178.

²¹³ *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.10, pp.194-5; *Taqrību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.2, p.275; *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.13, pp.131-4.

questioning. He said: 'Yes.' So I asked: 'Male or female?' And he replied: 'Male!'²¹⁴

One feast day, a man paid a call on Mu'ādh ibn Mu'ādh, the *qāḍī* of Baṣrah. He was holding some meat cooked in vinegar in his hands and the visitor asked him all there was to ask about the Creator. He said: 'He, by Allāh, is like that which is between my hands, flesh and blood!'²¹⁵

3. Dāwūd al-Jawāribī. Nothing is mentioned about him, not even the name of his father, except for what is related on the authority of Yazīd ibn Hārūn al-Wāsiṭī (118/736–206/821), one of the distinguished Traditionists, there is consensus about, that he said: "al-Jawāribī and al-Marrīsī [Bishr ibn Ghiyāth] are unbelievers." He said that Dāwūd al-Jawāribī was crossing Wāsiṭ bridge and the bridge broke, and all who were on it drowned [except Dāwūd, who survived]. Yazīd used to say: "He who expelled a devil, and he said: 'I am Dāwūd al-Jawāribī.'"'²¹⁶ From this it is apparent that he was an 'Irāqī, and that he and Bishr were contemporaries.

al-Ash'arī counts Dāwūd and his followers among the Murjiah, and ash-Shahristānī counts him and Nu'aym ibn Ḥammād among the anthropomorphists of the Ḥashwiyyah followers of *ḥadīth* who were in agreement with Muqātil ibn Sulaymān. 'Abdu 'l-Qāhir al-Baghdādī, Abū 'l-Muẓaffar al-Isfarāyīnī and others concluded the same, counting him among 'the anthropomorphists,' and not 'the Rāfiḍah' or 'the Rāfiḍī anthropomorphists.'

It is related from him that he said that what he worshipped is a body, flesh and blood, having extremities and limbs, with hands, feet, a head, a tongue, eyes, and ears; despite that, it is a body unlike bodies, a flesh unlike other flesh, blood unlike

²¹⁴ Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, pp.224-5.

²¹⁵ Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, p.116; Ibn Abi 'l-Ḥadīd, vol.3, p.225.

²¹⁶ *Mīzānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.2, p.23; *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.2, p.427.

blood, and so on for the rest of the attributes, that He does not resemble any created thing, and nothing resembles Him; that He is hollow from His highest point to His chest, and solid elsewhere, and He has an abundance of short, black hair. Dāwūd al-Jawāribī said: "I was excused from [mentioning] the private parts and the beard, and I was questioned about what the evidence for this was. What substantiates it is in the Traditions."²¹⁷ But Ibn Ḥazm numbered him among the Shī'ah²¹⁸ and said:

Dāwūd al-Jawāribī²¹⁹ was one of their greatest theologians, who claimed that his Lord is flesh and blood, in the manner of human beings.²²⁰

as-Sam'ānī said:

From [Hishām al-Jawālīqī] Dāwūd al-Jawāribī took his statement that his God has all the limbs, except private parts and beard.²²¹

adh-Dhahabī said, and Ibn Ḥajar al-'Asqalānī confirms it as being his word:

Dāwūd al-Jawāribī, head of the ar-Rāfiḍah and corporealism, one to be flung into Hell.²²²

The Imāmī sources do not mention a thing about him, and moreover, his name does not appear in any one of them, old or new.

²¹⁷ *Maqālātu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, pp.214, 258-9; *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, pp.105, 187; *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol.5, p.140; *al-Farq bayna 'l-fīraq*, pp.216, 320; *Uṣūlu 'd-dīn*, pp.74, 337; *at-Tabṣīr fi 'd-dīn*, p.107; *Talbīs iblīs*, pp.86, 87).

²¹⁸ *al-Fiṣal*, vol.2, p.112; vol.4, p.93.

²¹⁹ In the manuscript: al-Jawāzī, and in *al-Lisān*: al-Jawābī.

²²⁰ *al-Fiṣal*, vol.4, p.182; *Siyar a'lāmi 'n-nubalā'*, vol.10, p.544; *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.2, p.427.

²²¹ *al-Ansāb*, f. 590b; *al-Lubāb*, vol.3, p.389.

²²² *Mīzānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.2, p.23; *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.2, p.427.

**HISHĀM IBN AL-ḤAKAM AND HIS 'REFUTATION OF
HISHĀM AL-JAWĀLĪQĪ' AND THE 'REFUTATION OF
MU'MINU 'Ṭ-ṬĀQ' THAT IS ATTRIBUTED TO HIM**

Opposition to al-Jawālīqī for what he stated was not confined to the Imāms, peace be upon them. Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and his followers opposed al-Jawālīqī, as is stated in what 'Alī ibn Ibrāhīm, with a sound chain of transmission, narrated from Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn Abī Naṣr al-Bazanī – the *ḥadīth* has been cited previously – and by Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam.²²³

The biographers of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam mention in a list of his books a *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā Shayṭāni 'ṭ-Ṭāq*.²²⁴ The book itself has not come down to us so that we might know whom Hishām intended by 'Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq,' and those who mention the book as his do not elaborate on it. Perhaps the explanation that suggests itself at first glance is that the person intended is Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, Abū Ja'far al-Bajalī, previously mentioned alongside Hishām al-Jawālīqī and al-Maythamī; but I have serious doubts about this explanation. Rather, I am almost certain of its incorrectness, and that it is a mistaken explanation.

The scholars of the Imāmiyyah agreed that the naming by Abū Ja'far of al-Aḥwal al-Bajalī as 'Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq' came in the first place from the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah, and that the Imāmiyyah called him 'Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq'²²⁵. Others apart

²²³ *Kitābu 'r-radd 'alā Hishām al-Jawālīqī*. aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.204; an-Najāshī, p.304; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.224; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.232, 233; *Īdāhu 'l-maknūn*, vol.2, p.298; *Hadīyyatu 'l-'ārifīn*, vol.2, p.508; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.10, p.237.

²²⁴ aṭ-Ṭūsī, p.204; an-Najāshī, p. 305; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.224; *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, pp.233, 234; *Hadīyyatu 'l-'ārifīn*, vol.2, p.507; *adh-Dharī'ah*, vol.10, p.203.

²²⁵ al-Kishshī, p.185; al-Barqī, *ar-Rijāl*, p.17; al-Mufīd, *al-lkhtisāṣ*, p.204; aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.157; *ar-Rijāl*, p.359; an-Najāshī, p.228; Ibn Shahrāshūb, *Ma'ālimu 'l-'ulamā'*, p.115.

from the Imāmiyyah knew of this name of his, and related it on their authority.²²⁶ They cite other nicknames: 'Shāh Ṭāq/Shāhu 'ṭ-Ṭāq' and 'Malaku 'ṭ-Ṭāq'.²²⁷ Ibnu 'n-Nadīm said: "His followers called him Shāqu 'ṭ-Ṭāq as well."²²⁸ Moreover, Ibn Ḥajar relates on the authority of Ibn Abī Ṭayyi', the famous Imāmī scholar, one of the beliefs concerning his being named 'Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq', something only he quotes from him:

It is said that Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, a *shaykh* of the Rāfiḍah, on hearing that they [the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah] had nicknamed him Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, named him 'Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq'.²²⁹

This nickname, 'Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq', was not maintained for him after his time, but his contemporaries called him by it, and it is stated on the authority of Hishām ibn Sālim al-Jawālīqī himself,²³⁰ as also from Yūnus ibn Ya'qūb²³¹ Abān ibn 'Uthmān al-Aḥmar²³² Abū Mālik al-Aḥmasī,²³³ and Sharīk ibn 'Abdillāh an-Nakha'ī.²³⁴

It is really very unlikely that someone like Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam should give him this derisory nickname which the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah invented for him, and that the followers of the Imāmiyyah should counter them with another

²²⁶ Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, p.224; adh-Dhahabī, *Siyar a'lāmi 'n-nubalā'*, vol.10, pp.553-4; aṣ-Ṣafādī, *al-Wāfi bi 'l-wafayāt*, vol.4, p.104; Ibn Ḥajar, *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.5, p.300; ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, vol.1, p.186.

²²⁷ aṭ-Ṭūsī, *al-Fihrist*, p.222; *ar-Rijāl*, p.302; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.6, p.7.

²²⁸ See *al-Fihrist*, Tajaddud ed., appendix, p.224, al-Istiḳāmah ed., p.258.

²²⁹ *Lisānu 'l-mīzān*, vol.5, pp.300-1.

²³⁰ al-Kishshī, p.282; *al-Biḥār*, vol.47, p.262. And in another *ḥadīth*, al-Kishshī, pp.275-7; *al-Biḥār*, vol.47, pp.407-8.

²³¹ al-Kishshī, p.271.

²³² *al-Iḥtijāj*, vol.2, p.140; *al-Biḥār*, vol.46, p.180.

²³³ al-Kishshī, pp.186-8 – in three *ḥadīth*; *al-Biḥār*, vol.47, pp.405-6.

²³⁴ *al-Iḥtijāj*, vol.2, pp.144-8; *al-Biḥār*, vol.47, pp.396-400.

nickname which was appropriate for a man of his prestige and rank. Rather, Hishām himself would have been the one who began the opposition to them and chose 'Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq' for him, as previously mentioned in one of the beliefs regarding the reason for his being given this nickname. In addition to this, I have not found anything in the Imāmī *ḥadīth* which demonstrates the presence of adversity between Hishām and Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, nor any sort of clearly distinguishable divergence between them similar to the evidence which demonstrates a divergence between Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam and Hishām al-Jawālīqī. This sort of nicknaming has no justification, even when adversity and enmity is intensified, except in the case of insult and calumny. Indeed, I have previously mentioned, in a discussion about al-Jawālīqī, that Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq and al-Maythamī followed al-Jawālīqī in his ideas; a refutation of him is a refutation of both of them, and that is what Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam did.

Further to all this, there are the numerous indications in what I have mentioned in the biography of Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam of his good character, that he befriended an Ibādī Khārijite in a way which lasted for years, which set an example of good companionship, and which was bestowed upon all opponents – as al-Jāḥiẓ states. This name-calling, arising from a level of character appropriate to someone who was not at Hishām's level, is quite inconceivable for him.

On the basis of all this, and for other reasons, I am convinced that Hishām, in this book of his, is refuting a person other than Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq to whom this nickname 'Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq' was given before Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq. This man's adversity towards the Imāmiyyah reached a point where Hishām did not find it objectionable to nickname him with this sort of disgraceful nickname. However, the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah took the nickname out of context, and directed it at Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq,

because he lived in Ṭāq, in the region of Kūfah. He was called 'aṭ-Ṭāqī' or 'Ṣāhibu 'ṭ-Ṭāq'.²³⁵ The original holder of the nickname has been neglected to the point where we have forgotten him and this sort of obscurity came to pass.

Another piece of evidence which shows that this nickname was not only applied to Mu'minu 'ṭ-Ṭāq is that al-Khaṭīb gives the biography of a non-Imāmī narrator, and says: "Aḥmad ibn Hārūn, known as Shayṭānu 'ṭ-Ṭāq, from the people of Surra-man-ra'ā." ²³⁶

29

THE IMĀMĪS' POSITION ON NON-IMĀMĪ ḤADĪTH

From this urgently needed study of ours it appears that those of the Imāmiyyah who were accused of corporealism and anthropomorphism, whether correctly or not, were accused on the basis of their belief in *ḥadīth* which had leaked over to them from the non-Imāmī sects, and we have given examples bearing witness to this. These *ḥadīths* themselves were what led others to corporealism and anthropomorphism, knowingly or unknowingly; in this their views concurred, or at least those of their views which are narrated, although it is not proved that they, or some of them, believed in them.

As a single example of the effect of these *ḥadīths* on the environment of the Imāmiyyah, in addition to the examples already given, there is what aṣ-Ṣadūq narrates with a chain of authority originating with Ya'qūb as-Sarrāj, who stated:

I said to Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him: 'Some of our followers claim that Allāh has a form like human form, and they also say that He is, in this form, beardless, with short,

²³⁵ Refer to the sources already cited concerning his nickname.

²³⁶ = Present-day Sāmarrā' in 'Irāq: *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.5, p.196.

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curly hair [refer to what has been stated previous-ly].²³⁷ Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, fell to the ground, prostrated, and then he raised his head and said: 'Praise be to Allāh Who does not resemble anything, Who is not perceived by vision, and not bound by knowledge. *He did not beget*, because a son would resemble his father; *He was not begotten*, for whoever was before Him would resemble Him.'

There is another factor, and it suffices that we mention just one piece of evidence for it without comment or explanation. This is what came from Ibn Abī 'Umayr Muḥammad ibn Ziyād al-Azdī al-Baghdādī (d. 217/832), the famous Imāmī Traditionist and scholar, concerning what al-Kishshī narrated from al-Faḍl ibn Shādhān:

He questioned Abū Muḥammad ibn Abī 'Umayr, saying to him: 'You have met the non-Imāmī *shaykhs*, but how is it that you have not heeded them?' He said: 'I listened to them; however I saw that many of our followers had heard knowledge from the *'āmmah* (non-Imāmīs) and from the *khāṣṣah* (the elite-Imāmīs), and that they had been confused to the point where they narrated a non-Imāmī *ḥadīth* from Imāmī sources and vice versa. I dreaded the thought of becoming confused, so I abandoned this and focussed on that' [i.e., 'I stopped narrating non-Imāmī *ḥadīth* and confined myself to Imāmī *ḥadīth*'].²³⁸

These two factors, in addition to others, explain the confidence which emanated from the Imāms, peace be upon them, and which their partisans had in taking their beliefs and rulings from them, as well as the reliance upon the truthful and trustworthy people who narrated on their authority. May Allāh

²³⁷ *at-Tawḥīd*, pp.103-4; *al-Biḥār*, vol.3, p.304.

²³⁸ al-Kishshī, pp.590-1; *Majma'u 'r-rijāl*, vol.5, p.118; *Mu'jam rijāli 'l-ḥadīth*, vol.14, p.299.

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forgive our brothers for explaining it as a rupture between Muslim brethren, and transforming it into an indictment, to be added to the other indictments against us!

It is clear from this study of ours that the adversaries of the Imāmiyyah, no matter how their views differed or their beliefs varied, did not cease to behave towards the Imāmiyyah as they did, or as it was claimed they did, concerning what was between them. I have presented many examples of this, and have refrained from commenting on them. However, here I will relate the opinion of a non-Imāmī writer concerning one of the most famous books on treatises and sects, to which Muslims of all periods have accorded a high status among all books on the subject. The book is *al-Farq bayna 'l-firaq wa bayānu 'l-firqati 'n-nājiyyah minhā* by Abū Maṣṣūr, ‘Abdu 'l-Qāhir ibn Ṭāhir al-Baghdādī, al-Ash‘arī, ash-Shāfi‘ī (d. 429/1038), and in the same vein, his other book *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal*, both in print; and another book of no less importance, if not as successful, being *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal* by Abu 'l-Fath, Muḥammad ibn ‘Abdi 'l-Karīm ash-Shahristānī (479/1086–548/1153). Fakhru 'd-Dīn ar-Rāzī, the famous theologian and commentator, says of the book *al-Milal wa 'n-niḥal* by ash-Shahristānī:

It is a book which, it claims, relates the doctrines of the world, but it is not relied upon because it draws Islamic beliefs from the book called *al-Farq bayna 'l-firaq* by Abū Maṣṣūr al-Baghdādī, and this teacher was severely bigoted against those who differed in belief and scarcely presented their beliefs in a truthful fashion. ash-Shahristānī, then, drew the beliefs of the Muslim sects from this book, and for this reason slandered their honour in the process.²³⁹

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²³⁹ *Munāzarāt Fakhru 'd-Dīn ar-Rāzī fī bilād mā warāi 'n-nahr*, ed. Dr. Faḥullāh Khalīf, Dāru 'l-Mashriq, Beirut, 1966, with English transl., p.39-99; and see the translation, p.62-99.

Before concluding the investigation, I must say a word concerning the role of the Mu'tazilah in this area. The Mu'tazilah were confronted from the beginning by two sorts of adversaries: one group were followers of *ḥadīth* and the *sunnah*, or those who were called al-Ḥashwiyyah and an-Nābitah by the Mu'tazilah, and the second group were the theologians who differed with them in their views. The Traditionists did not confront the Mu'tazilah with the weapons of theology and debate and join the battle of argument with argument, but rather confronted them with accusations of heresy and unbelief, and the charge of atheism and going beyond the legitimate bounds of the religion. With the influence they had on the general public, their adversity was transformed into a mere 'physical struggle', in which the Mu'tazilah were compelled to grasp the weapon of authority since they had failed to grasp the weapon of the backing of the general public. The most important manifestations were the tragedies in which the history of the time of the 'Abbāsids al-Ma'mūn, al-Mu'taṣim, al-Wāthiq, and al-Mutawakkil (198/813–247/861) abound. The Mu'tazilah were victorious in the first period of the third caliphate, as they had the authority and the weapons of the sultan on their side. This is a tragedy, which the historians hold to have been a struggle over the issue of the createdness of the Qur'ān. However the Mu'tazilah lost their position after the authorities inclined towards their opponent theologians, and they lost the weapon of authority, just as their predecessors had lost the weapon of the general public.

As for their theological adversaries – the most important of these were the Imāmī theologians – the controversy the Mu'tazilah had with them took place merely in the intellectual arena, since the disputing parties were, as was pointed out,

equal in strength, in possession neither of the weapon of the sultan or of the community. Rather, the Mu'tazilah were, with respect to the Imāmiyyah, closer to the heart of the sultan and his sympathy, and more able to seek the aid of his influence and arms! Here the Mu'tazilah sought assistance by all reason and means, and pursued every avenue, which facilitated their victory. It was fear of the public in the first instance, and following that, fear of both the public and the sultan, which shackled the hands of the Mu'tazilah in front of the Traditionists; this did not shackle their hands before the Imāmiyyah, and for this reason we do not find in the books of the Mu'tazilah concerned with the Traditionists the offensive accusations, the continual biting criticism, and the bare-faced adversity which we find they have with respect to the Imāmiyyah.

I think that what the Mu'tazilah attributed to the Imāmiyyah, which others adopted from them, they heard in the first instance from the Traditionists. Muqātil ibn Sulaymān settled in Baṣrah towards the end of his life, and spread his views there,²⁴⁰ and so did his contemporary Ḥammād ibn Salamah al-Baṣrī (88/707–167/784), the *mufī* and *faqīh* of Baṣrah, and a famous Traditionist. He was the one with whom are associated most of the *ḥadīth* concerning the divine attributes which he used to demonstrate corporealism and anthropomorphism, and which it was said that his confederate 'Abdu 'l-Karīm ibn Abi 'l-'Awjā', the well-known atheist, inserted in his own books, and which Ḥammād narrated and defended as true.²⁴¹ Mu'ādh al-'Anbarī, the *qāḍī* and Traditionist of Baṣrah, and Dāwūd al-

²⁴⁰ As was previously mentioned, according to adh-Dhahabī 'Baṣrah is a nest of predestination': *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.3, p.91.

²⁴¹ Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *al-Mawḍū'āt*, vol.1, pp.37, 100, 122; Ibn Fūrak, *Mushkilu 'l-ḥadīth*, p.169; al-Bayhaqī, *al-Asmā' wa 'ṣ-ṣifāt*, p.445; adh-Dhahabī, *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.1, p.593; Ibn Ḥajar, *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.3, p.15; as-Suyūfī, *al-La'ālī 'l-maṣnū'ah*, vol.1, p.25; vol.2, p.468; etc.

Jawāribī were either from Baṣrah or had connections with it. The Mu'tazilah took everything from them, but they could not at first ridicule them using these narrations, so they used their statements against the Imāmiyyah, attributing them to the Baṣrans in the first instance, and the using it to ridicule them afterwards.

30

COMPARISON OF THE *TASHĪHU 'L-I'TIQĀD*
WITH THE *I'TIQĀDĀTU 'L-IMĀMIYYAH*

The final point I wish to mention is that the comparison of *Tashīhu 'l-i'tiqād* by al-Mufīd with *I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* by aṣ-Ṣadūq only reveals to us what the Imāmiyyah Traditionist and theological schools shared, and what they differed in, and no more, during the period up to the fifth/eleventh century. However, to conclude this comparison by saying that the difference, which we find on al-Mufid's side, can be traced back to the influence of the Mu'tazilah is an inference, which is refuted by many facts resting on correct deduction based on truthful and comprehensive study.

The Imāmiyyah, from the beginning, contained these two schools of thought. We have stated that while they were different in style and form of demonstration, they were not adversarial opponents, as we have found them to be among the non-Imāmī. I have elsewhere written a continuous history of Imāmī theologians, in which I trace them up to the period of Shaykhu 't-Ṭāīfah aṭ-Ṭūsī, and I have mentioned the books of theology that are cited as theirs; it will be published, Allāh willing, as a preface to the English translation of "Kitābu 't-Tawhīd" of *Uṣūl al-Kāfi*. However, the books which I have cited there have mostly perished, and only a trifling amount has reached us; nevertheless, they have titles, and what these titles suggest dem-

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onstrates that Imāmī theology is a continuous, uninterrupted chain, which thrived and was maintained up to the time of the Shaykh al-Mufīd. Where we do not have actual examples, the least we can do is study their titles and what little remains of their contents. Our study is, therefore, fragmented and incomplete, and it is not correct for us to judge that what we see as a distinctive feature of al-Mufīd is something he picked up from the Mu'tazilah. Rather, there are proofs, which demonstrate that this distinctive feature was something that had been passed down to him from previous Imāmī theologians, in the same way as their doctrine, which he inherited with its special characteristics. I have already presented some of the discussion surrounding the methodological division between Traditionist and theological styles. It is apparent from this that these strong judgements, which have been stated both in the past and at the present, concerning the influence of the Mu'tazilah on the Imāmiyyah, are unfounded. I have made it clear that they were not influenced by the Mu'tazilah in their beliefs; this was my intention in this introduction, and as for the study of other aspects, I leave that task to another time.

However, I would like to put forward here a single example of these biting judgements, being the least weighty of examples, and the least outrageous and arbitrary in its connection with aṣ-Ṣadūq and al-Mufīd. M. McDermott mentions that the *Kitābu 't-Tawhīd* by aṣ-Ṣadūq was composed later than his two other books, *al-I'tiqādātu 'l-Imāmiyyah* and *al-Hidāyah*, and that aṣ-Ṣadūq was therein closer to the thinking of the Mu'tazilah than he was in the other two, since after aṣ-Ṣadūq had emigrated to Rayy, he lived in the Buyid court there. Perhaps this difference was due to 'the pressure of the vizier aṣ-Ṣāhib ibn 'Abbād²⁴² or the influence of Mu'tazilite arguments may well have changed

²⁴² Vizier to the Būyids (326/938–385/995).

his thinking.²⁴³

But there is more weighty evidence from an earlier period. al-Kulaynī, the Shaykh Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn Ya'qūb ar-Rāzī, then al-Baghdādī (d. 329/941), was a Traditionist *shaykh* of the Imāmiyyah who lived in Rayy and then moved to Baghdad at the end of his life and died there.²⁴⁴ al-Kulaynī gave a chapter in the section on *tawḥīd* in *al-Kāfī* the title *Ta'wīlu 'ṣ-ṣamad* (the interpretation of *ṣamad*), and quoted there two *ḥadīth* which explained *ṣamad* as His eternal mastery over everything, great or small,²⁴⁵ and then went on to state:

This is the correct interpretation of *aṣ-ṣamad*, not what anthropomorphism holds about it: that the interpretation of *aṣ-ṣamad* is a solid, which has no void within it. That interpretation is nothing more than an attribute of bodies, and Allāh, glory be to His name, is above this; . . . if the interpretation of *aṣ-ṣamad* as an attribute of Allāh were solidity, then it would contradict His words: *there is no thing like Him* (ash-Shūrā, 42:11), because solidity is an attribute of solid bodies which have no voids, like stone, or iron, or other solid objects . . . And as for what is stated in Tradition concerning this matter, the knower (i.e., the infallible Imām), peace be upon him, is more knowledgeable by what he said.

He then goes on to demonstrate the correctness of this explanation with a linguistic argument;²⁴⁶ in this way he anticipated the Shaykh al-Ṭūsī, the student of al-Mufīd, by many centuries. al-Ṭūsī said:

Whoever interprets *aṣ-ṣamad* to mean 'solid' is ignorant of

²⁴³ *The Theology of ash-Shaikh al-Mufid*, pp.323, 341-9.

²⁴⁴ For his biography see the forward to the English translation of "Kitābu 'l-'Aql wa 'l-Jahl" from *al-Kāfī*.

²⁴⁵ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, pp.123-4, nos.323/324.

²⁴⁶ *al-Kāfī*, vol.1, p.124.

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Allāh, because solidity is the compression of parts, and that, which has no voids; this is anthropomorphism and unbelief in Allāh.²⁴⁷

Those Traditions which al-Kulaynī indicates but does not quote and which explain *aṣ-ṣamad* as that which has no voids, aṣ-Ṣadūq cites and does not miss out in his *Kitābu 't-Tawḥīd*, in which, according to McDermott, he was more influenced by the Mu'tazilah than in his *Risālah*, or his *Hidāyah*,²⁴⁸ and he combines it with the meaning which al-Kulaynī adopted as explaining *aṣ-ṣamad*, and takes on both of them. He interprets *aṣ-ṣamad* in a way, which does not lend itself to corporealism,²⁴⁹ from this it appears that al-Kulaynī was more of a Mu'tazilah than aṣ-Ṣadūq!

It may be that the reverential support given to these judgements which have been expounded about the Imāmiyyah both ancient and modern, and which opine that they were dependant on the Mu'tazilah who provided them with their views and arguments will lead some to claim that another Mu'tazilī circle existed or came into existence, and that al-Kulaynī lived within it, and that another Mu'tazilī vizier put pressure upon him. I do not, in any way, deny that an Imāmī scholar can be influenced by a teacher of his who differs from him in belief, or by the atmosphere of adversity around him, but what I do not accept is what McDermott's opinion is inspired by, being that aṣ-Ṣadūq renounced some of his ideas, or covered up aspects of them in deference to his followers or to the Mu'tazilah, and this continued reverence for these judgements which state that any modification of Imāmī opinion occurred as a result of Mu'tazilī influence upon them. In the view of aṣ-Ṣadūq, aṣ-Ṣāhib ibn 'Abbād was not that Mu'tazilī whom the Mu'tazilī sources

²⁴⁷ *at-Tibyān*, vol.10, p.431.

²⁴⁸ *at-Tawḥīd*, pp.93, 140, 171.

²⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p.197.

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suppose him to be. Rather he was a Twelver Imāmī who eulogized the Imāms, particularly ar-Riḍā, peace be upon him, in many *qaṣīdas*, in which he explicitly refers to their Imāmate. aṣ-Ṣadūq wrote his '*Uyūn akhbāri 'r-Riḍā*, '*alay-hi 's-salām* for him, and explicitly mentions him in the beginning of the book. Moreover, he quotes the poems of aṣ-Ṣāhib therein.²⁵⁰

* * * * *

In issues of theology, it is necessary to distinguish between those which touch directly upon belief, and those, which do not, such as those issues, which come under the heading of the *latīf* (refinements) of *kalām*. Our Shaykh al-Mufīd cites many of these kinds of elaborations at the end of his *Awāilu 'l-maqālāt*.²⁵¹ My goal in this introduction is limited to stating that the Imāmiyyah did not take their beliefs from the Mu'tazilah, and that anthropomorphism and corporealism did not reign over them for a single day prior to their contact with the Mu'tazilah. As for being influenced in issues like these, or being influenced in the type of demonstration used in issues connected with them, I do not rule it out; rather, there is much evidence for its occurrence, but there was a two-way influence. What is most distressing is the ignorance of the influence Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam had on the two Mu'tazilī scholars, an-Nazzām and Abū Ṭayyib, for example, and the importance given to al-Mufīd's being influenced by the Mu'tazilah.

As for the extent of the Mu'tazill influence on al-Mufīd, in particular, in matters of the *latīfu 'l-kalām* in questions which did not touch directly upon doctrine, and especially al-Mufīd's pursuance of the ideas of al-Ka'bī al-Balkhī, which McDermott uses freely in his book *The Theology of ash-Shaikh al-Mufīd*, I

²⁵⁰ '*Uyūnu 'l-akhbār*, vol.1, pp.3-7.

²⁵¹ p.72 ff.

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shall not discuss anything he states, since I have discussed the principles which he relies upon and given my opinion of them; as for the details, a discussion of them would form another article.

It should also be pointed out that taking from a non-Imāmī theologian does not necessarily mean that a student follows his teacher's opinions, especially as far as doctrinal differences he has with him are concerned. The non-Imāmī theologians of the earlier time were Mu'tazilī, and following the period of the Shaykhu 't-Ṭāifah aṭ-Ṭūsī, were mostly Ash'arī; a group of our Imāmī theologians were involved with them. In addition, and in contrast to this, there is the recorded involvement of non-Imāmī with Imāmī theologians, such as the students of Naṣīru 'd-Dīn aṭ-Ṭūsī, the famous theologian and philosopher. This is only the acquisition of information from a non-Imāmī *shaykh*; how many non-Imāmī *shaykhs* of *ḥadīth* there were from whom al-Mufīd, al-Murtaḍā, aṭ-Ṭūsī, and al-Karājīkī learnt, not to mention those who preceeded them, like aṣ-Ṣadūq, and those who succeeded them, like the 'Allāmah al-Ḥillī. These men weighed the *ḥadīth* they heard with the scales they held to be correct; in their view, it was a necessity for them to reveal the soundness or otherwise of a *ḥadīth*. The result of this is that the Imāmī Traditionist sought the assistance of what he heard from his non-Imāmī *shaykh* in substantiating what he believed about the Imāmate, and the qualifications of the Imāms, peace be upon them, or in the refutation of arguments of adversaries. This is the case as well in the sciences of theology, Qur'ānic commentary, positive law, and jurisprudence. This sort of involvement was beneficial, in the first instance, in learning the usefulness of what the two sides agreed upon, and secondly, in making use of the teacher's knowledge in defense of what the student believed to be true.

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THE EMENDATION
of
A Shī'ite Creed



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A translation of *Taṣḥīḥu 'l-I'tiqād*
of Abū 'Abdillāh,
Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad ibn Nu'mān,
Known as ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd.
(336/948 or 338/950 – 413/1022)

By:

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***In the Name of Allāh
The All-Compassionate, The All-Merciful***

*Praise belongs to Allāh, the Lord of all Being;
the All-Compassionate, the All-Merciful;
the Master of the Day of Judgement.
Thee only we serve; and to Thee alone we pray
for succour.*

*Guide us in the straight path,
the path of those whom Thou hast blessed,
not of those against whom Thou art wrathful,
nor of those who are astray.*

* * * * *

*O' Allāh! Send your blessings to the head of
your messengers and the last of
your prophets,
Muḥammad and his pure and cleansed progeny.
Also send your blessings to all your
prophets and envoys.*

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ
أَلْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ رَبِّ الْعَالَمِينَ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ
مَالِكِ يَوْمِ الدِّينِ إِيَّاكَ نَعْبُدُ وَإِيَّاكَ نَسْتَعِينُ
أَهْدِنَا الصِّرَاطَ الْمُسْتَقِيمَ صِرَاطَ الَّذِينَ
أَنْعَمْتَ عَلَيْهِمْ غَيْرِ الْمَغْضُوبِ عَلَيْهِمْ
وَلَا الضَّالِّينَ

اللَّهُمَّ صَلِّ عَلَى
سَيِّدِ رُسُلِكَ وَخَاتَمِ أَنْبِيَائِكَ
مُحَمَّدٍ وَآلِهِ الطَّيِّبِينَ الطَّاهِرِينَ
وَصَلِّ عَلَى جَمِيعِ الْأَنْبِيَاءِ وَالرُّسُلِ

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TRANSLITERATION

Ar. Letters	Transliteration	Ar. Letters	Transliteration
ء } ا }	’ a	ق	q
ب	b	ك	k
ت	t	ل	l
ث	th	م	m
ج	j	ن	n
ح	ḥ	و	w
خ	kh	ه	h
د	d	ي	y
ذ	dh	ة	ah
ر	r		
ز	z	Short Vowel	
س	s	َ	a
ش	sh	ِ (or ُ)	i
ص	ṣ	ُ	u
ض	ḍ		
ط	ṭ	Long Vowels	
ظ	ẓ	آ	ā
ع	‘	ي	ī
غ	gh	و	ū
ف	f		

PREFACE

The intellectual relationship between the Mu'tazilite school of thought and Shī'ism, which constitutes, as the late Prof. Macdonald noticed, "the great mystery of Muslim history", was referred to by many classical as well as modern scholars. The different opinions expressed by them on this complicated subject can be reduced to two theories.

Those who maintain that Shī'ism has elaborated its theology on a basis borrowed from the intellectual system of the Mu'tazilites, to which the Shī'ah divines affiliated themselves during the fourth century of the Hijra. This theory seems to be very old in origin, since as early as the fourth century some, such as ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, wrote a refutation of it. Among the Sunnite theologians ash-Shahrastānī, Ibn Taymiyyah and ad-Dawānī supported it. Recently both Goldziher and Adam Mez have also championed it.

Contrary to this is the theory advanced by the Shī'ite theo-

logians themselves who resented the whole aspersion of borrowing, and were engaged in intellectual controversies in an effort to repudiate it, directing their fiercest attacks against this so-called "false allegation". They were not content with this negative refutation but also alleged that the whole Mu'tazilite system was itself a product of the teachings of the infallible Imāms, which were transfused into Mu'tazilite philosophy through the tuition which the early Mu'tazilite doctor, and the founder of the whole school, Wāṣil ibn 'Aṭā' received from Muḥammad Ibn al-Ḥanafīyyah.* It is easy in this respect to explain and comprehend the concern of the Shī'ah divines on the grounds that to them the whole structure of their authoritative system was based on and indeed derived from the direct intuition which the infallible received from God without any extraneous support.

Nevertheless, a critical investigation based on comparative research will soon disclose that the transformation of the Shī'ite theology from a literal, traditional stand to a rational and allegorical interpretation of the revealed law, was primarily inspired by critical and rational Mu'tazilite tendencies.

I am convinced that a critical comparison of the Imāmiyyah Creed as stated for the first time by Ibn Bābawayh al-Qummī in his *'Aqāidu 'l-Imāmiyyah*, with *Taṣḥīḥ I'tiqādāti 'l-Imāmiyyah* which was compiled by his pupil Abū 'Abdillāh ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, which is the core of my thesis, will demonstrate that the reconstruction, refinement and re-exam-

* This relationship, though referred to frequently (see Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah*, p.5), is not admissible since Muḥammad Ibn al-Ḥanafīyyah died in 79 or 80 AH, the very year in which Wāṣil was born. Some sources substitute Abū Hāshim 'Abdullāh, the son of Muḥammad Ibn al-Ḥanafīyyah for his father (ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal*, vol.1, p.57). Even, if this were so, the personal relationship should not be stressed too far, as it would be rash to assume their teachings are necessarily similar.

ination which is visible in al-Mufīd's work, marked a new orientation towards a critical methodology first inaugurated by the Mu'tazilite. Hence it is essential that my work should be studied along with Prof. A.A.A. Fyzee's *A Shī'ite Creed*.

My thesis, as it stands, consists of three parts. In Part One, I have dealt with the author, his works and the times in which he lived, since it is my opinion that the Buwayhid regime in which he lived, provided a milieu in which Mu'tazilite teachings permeated Shī'ite theology. I have prepared a complete list of his works, published, extant in manuscript, and unknown to us except by name, to show the position which he enjoyed and the important role he played in Shī'ite thought. I was very lucky in my visit to an-Najaf, al-Kāzimayn and Karbalā', where I found many valuable manuscripts not recorded in the standard catalogues.

In Part Two I have prepared a critical translation of *Taṣḥīḥ I'tiqādāti 'l-Imāmiyyah*, with amendments and notes. I have based my translation on the published text which is based in turn on three different manuscripts. I have made use of a fourth copy which exists at the India Office Library under the number 2057. I have referred to them respectively by the letters (T) for the published text, and (N) for the India Office manuscript. In Part Three, I have commented on a selection of topics relevant to my thesis. In some cases detailed and somewhat lengthy explanations were unavoidable so that the different stands of the various schools should be made clear and their inter-relations and mutual impact easily discerned. Three general observations also are to be noticed:

- a) I have restricted my research to the intellectual relationship between the Mu'tazilite school of thought and the Ithna-'Ashariyyah school of the Shī'ah; thus wherever the word Shī'ah is used generally, they are meant by it.
- b) Since this thesis deals with controversial subjects and ter-

minology, it was very difficult to rely only on one of the approved translations of the Qur'ān, consequently I have made use of all the standard translations.

- c) Some of the terms which occur in the text or the commentary were too long to be explained in footnotes; I have separated them in Appendices which appear at the end of the work.

I take this opportunity to express my high esteem and deep gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. A. J. Arberry, whose encouragement and instruction was the source from which I drew my inspiration. My sincere thanks are also due to my friend, Miss. J. Thompson, of the Oriental Department, University Library, for her generous and unstinted assistance throughout the work in correcting my English. My gratitude is also due to Mrs. Virginia Barnes who bore the difficulty of typing the thesis. Lastly, I would like to express my thanks to the Iraqi Government for the scholarship which paved the way for my higher education.

‘Irfān ‘Abdu 'l-Ḥamīd

April 1965,
Cambridge University.

PART ONE

A. THE AUTHOR AND HIS WORKS

B. A HISTORICAL SKETCH OF HIS TIMES

THE AUTHOR AND HIS WORKS

Abū ‘Abdillāh Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad ibn an-Nu‘mān al-Hārithī al-‘Ukbarī al-Baghdādī¹. He was one of the most famous divines of the Ithnā-‘Ashariyyah School of the Shī‘ah and was unanimously regarded as one of their foremost scholars, while his works were considered to be among those which established the nascent theology of the Shī‘ah on a sound and clear-cut basis. Abū ‘Abdillāh traced his descent back to Qaḥṭān, so was proud of his purely Arab ancestry. He is well-known to us under two different *laqabs*, al-Mufīd and Ibnu 'l-Mu‘allim. The former *laqab* was bestowed on him, according to some authorities, by his master ‘Alī ibn ‘Īsā ar-Rummānī² with whom al-Mufīd "discussed the Imāmate and displayed a powerful intelligence; therefore he called him by this *laqab*"³. Others mentioned the assertion that the Twelfth Imām (*Ṣāhibu 'z-Zamān*), 'The Master of the Time', "appointed him as his deputy and bestowed upon him this honorific title"⁴. His second title, Ibnu 'l-Mu‘allim, seems to have been derived from his "father's occupation as a teacher in the city of Wāsiṭ"⁵.

al-Mufīd was born in a small village in the district of ‘Ukbarā, known as Suwayqat ibn al-Baṣrī, in 11th Dhi 'l-Qi‘dah, 336/947 – according to an-Najāshī⁶ and al-Khwānsārī⁷ – or in 388, according to aṭ-Ṭūsī⁸ and Ibn Shahrāshūb⁹, and died on the third (or second) of Ramaḍān 413 AH/December 1022 AD,

at al-Karkh and was buried first in his house-yard in the suburb of al-Ushnān¹⁰. Afterwards his body was transferred to the cemetery of Quraysh.

Historians described the day of his death as a day of universal lamentation; "both his friends and enemies were full of mourning"¹¹. He was so highly esteemed that "eighty thousand people are said to have gathered in the public square in Baghdad at the time of his funeral"¹². Among those who wrote elegies on him was his pupil, ash-Sharīf ar-Raḍī.

Historians, whether from the Sunnite ranks or from those of the Shī'ah are unanimously of the opinion that al-Mufīd was one of the most brilliant scholars of his day and destined to play a constructive and decisive role in the intellectual and political affairs of the Buwayhid regime. Both his friends and opponents recognized his outstanding ability and contribution to knowledge.

al-Mufīd was famous for his learning and integrity, as well as his powers of memory and reasoning. Ibnu 'n-Nadīm says, "in our time Abū 'Abdillāh was the head of the Shī'ah theologians, outstanding in the art of dialectics in the school he followed, of a penetrating wit and retentive memory. I met him and found him excelled"¹³. aṣ-Ṣafadī characterized him as "the unrivalled master of the known sciences of that time"¹⁴. Ibn Ḥajar described him as, "an author of many outstanding works numbering about two hundred"¹⁵. Ibn Kathīr described him as "the head of the Rawāfiḍ and the man who wrote many works which defended and consolidated their doctrines"¹⁶.

The Shī'ah biographers also esteemed him highly and recognized the great influence he had on later theologians and traditionists. al-Khwānsārī observed that "he was the most honoured teacher and the spiritual head of all the Shī'ahs, and he who followed him benefited by his knowledge; his profound comprehension of jurisprudence, scholastic theology, and the

science of transmission (*riwāyah*) was famed far and wide."¹⁷ He is numbered in *A'yānu 'sh-Shī'ah* among "the chief Shī'ah theologians", and described as the "foremost *faqīh* and doctor of his time, whom the Shī'ahs regarded as the master of theology, principles of jurisprudence, tradition, biography and exegesis of the Qur'ān"¹⁸. al-Mufīd, in an endeavour to consolidate Shī'ite thought and give it an integral shape, compiled two books, the first concerning the principles of belief, called *Awāilu 'l-maqālāt*, and the other concerning the principles of the practical law, called *al-I'lām*. These became a basis for Shī'ah learning and their effect was far-reaching.

The high position of al-Mufīd can be appreciated by the fact that "the Buwayhid *amīr*, al-Mu'taḍid, used to visit him at his house and attend the discussions held at his behest"¹⁹. According to the assertion of many authorities, al-Mufīd was in contact with the Master of the Time and he bestowed upon him his favour and addressed him as his deputy. One of his charges runs like this, "Peace be unto thee, O our sincere disciple, in whom we have complete trust . . . may God perpetuate His guidance to you in your championing of the truth and may He reward you highly for preaching the truth on our behalf"²⁰.

al-Mufīd, at an early age, acquired his knowledge from more than sixty masters – *shaykhs*; among them was the celebrated divine, Ibn Bābawayh al-Qummī (d. 381 AH) and the illustrious traditionist, Abu 'l-Qāsim Ja'far ibn Muḥammad, Ibn Qūlawayh al-Qummī (d. 368 AH)²¹, and the famous theologian, Abū 'Alī Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn al-Junayd al-Iskāfī (d. 381)²². Among the prominent Shī'ah scholars who received their education from al-Mufīd were ash-Sharīf ar-Raḍī (Abu 'l-Ḥasan Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn al-Mūsawī, d. 406)²³, ash-Sharīf al-Murtaḍā ('Alamu 'l-Hudā Abu 'l-Qāsim 'Alī ibn al-Ḥusayn, d. 436)²⁴ and aṭ-Ṭūsī (Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan, d. 458)²⁵.

al-Mufīd represents a new, rational trend within Shī'ah thought, the result of which was the rejection of literal acceptance of the divine law and the introduction of rational and allegorical interpretation into Imāmiyyah teaching for the first time, in an attempt to eradicate the fallacies and absurdities resulting from literal acceptance. This new method, though it had supporters, was not approved by his successors without a great deal of reluctance and criticism; some, such as 'Izzu 'd-Dīn al-Ḥasan ibn Sulaymān al-Ḥillī, writing refutation of the 'innovations' he introduced ²⁶.

With regard to the works of al-Mufīd, our sources ascribe to him two hundred books. This large number may be due to the fact that some of the titles mentioned, in a large number of cases, could be chapters, abstracts, responsa, or even summaries of a book, rather than complete works. It is also possible that in some instances the same book may have been known under two or more different titles.*

* A full list of his works will be given later.

A HISTORICAL SKETCH OF HIS TIMES

The period in which al-Mufīd lived has a special importance not only from the point of view of Shī'ite theology, but also in the history of scholastic theology in general. It was a period of dogmatic controversies and sectarian disputes, each school trying to reshuffle and re-examine its teachings. It was a period when the most eminent theologians of Islam lived and exercised their influence, such as al-Bāqillānī (an Ash'arite), al-Qāḍī 'Abdu 'l-Jabbār (a Mu'tazilite) and al-Mufīd, the Shī'ite. Thus it is necessary to give a brief sketch of the Buwayhid regime (334-447 AH) in which al-Mufīd played a remarkable role, and which was roughly coterminous with his lifetime.

The Buwayhids entered Baghdad on Jumādu 'l-Awwal, 344/17th January, 946, with an army mainly composed of foreign elements under the leadership of Aḥmad ibn Buwayh. The success of this entry was due partly to a secret correspondence with the Caliph al-Mustakfī (d. 338/949), "who received the victorious leader and bestowed upon him the honorific title of Mu'izzu 'd-Dawlah and installed him as Amīru 'l-Umarā'. At the same time, his brothers 'Alī and al-Ḥasan received the titles of 'Imādu 'l-Dawlah and Ruknu 'd-Dawlah, respectively. Moreover, he ordered their names and titles to be struck on the coinage"²⁷.

The advent of the Buwayhids to Baghdad brought about an essential and profound change in the Caliphate. It is true that the seizure of power by the Buwayhids did little more than set the seal on the development which had, in effect, placed the caliphate under the domination of army chiefs, promoted Amīru 'l-Umarā'. "But this time there was the added fact that the Buwayhids were professing Shī'ahs, so much so that it might have been asked whether they were not about to suppress a caliphate whose legitimacy had no special meaning for

them"²⁸. No sooner had they entered Baghdad than they displayed their disrespect toward the Caliphate, so twelve days after, Mu'izzu 'd-Dawlah dismissed the Caliph on "the ground that he was plotting with his officers against him, and seeking help from the Ḥamdānids of al-Mawṣil; moreover, he was annoyed by the Caliph who put the head of the Shī'ah into prison"²⁹. The dismissal of the Caliph "took place in an unceremonious manner"³⁰.

From the dogmatic point of view, the Buwayhids "were imbued with Shī'ism; they preached it energetically; and Shī'ism was substantially strengthened by their effort"³¹. Being the adherents of a political system based on and derived from a divinely appointed Imāmate "they did not recognize the claim of the Sunnī caliph to supreme headship of the Islamic world"³², and consequently they "rejected altogether the 'Abbāsīd's right to caliphate, because they were convinced that they had usurped the office from its true holders, and so the religious impulse which might have incited them to obey the 'Abbāsīd Caliphate was absent"³³. It was essential doctrine which obliged them to accept the divinely appointed Imām as the only justified temporal and spiritual leader of Islam. As a matter of fact, they maintained the 'Abbāsīd Caliphate for purely political reasons, since the abolition of it might have resulted in a colossal revolt against Buwayhid authority, which they were anxious to avoid³⁴. Yet this doctrinal divergency in the conception of political authority was responsible for a series of humiliations to the Sunnī caliph. Thus the Buwayhid *amīrs* were "the first princes who insisted on having their names mentioned in the *khuṭbah* along with that of the Caliph"³⁵. This was followed by a series of further encroachments on the prerogatives of the Caliph. They began to impose restrictions on the political power of the caliphs; the confiscation of their lands and properties, and the dismissal of whomsoever they desired by cauterizing their eyes

with hot iron, and thereby disqualifying them from ruling. It is curious to mention that on one occasion "‘Aḍudu 'd-Dawlah commanded that the Caliph's name should be abolished from the Friday *khutbah* so that no prayer was said for the Caliph for two months, because of a slight dispute which took place between ‘Aḍudu 'd-Dawlah and the Caliph"³⁶.

It is a historical fact that with the beginning of the Buwayhid regime, the caliphate as a body-politic began to lose its importance, and the caliphs gradually, but constantly, lost all their political powers. What remained to them was, as al-Bīrūnī observed, "only a religious, doctrinal authority and not a secular power, exactly like that of the head of the Jālūt (Diaspora) among the Jews, who have only the religious leadership without any temporal powers"³⁷.

Beside what has been mentioned, the most important feature of this period, which has its relative importance in our present study, was that it witnessed a severe struggle between the two dominant doctrines, the Sunnite and the Shī‘ite, each trying to impose its religious sovereignty all over the Muslim world. The ‘Abbāsīd Caliph, after being deprived of all his effective political powers, was anxious to restore his religious supremacy among the people. The result of this trend was the emergence of a semi-religious party, mainly composed of the ‘*ulamā*’, ‘*fuqahā*’, and the ‘*khutabā*’. This semi-religious party proved to be of a special importance to the ever-weakened caliph. Thus, although the Buwayhid *amīrs* were the real independent governors of the empire, yet it was very dangerous for them to display openly their enmity towards the caliphs. As Prof. Arnold observed, "the inflictions of such humiliation on the caliph is in striking contrast with the honour and reverence paid to him, whenever it was politic to bring him forward, as the supreme head of the faith"³⁸. This religious party was to play a decisive role especially during the period of Buwayhid

decline and was used as a weapon by which the Caliph began to impose his will on the Buwayhid *amīrs*. For example, when the Caliph al-Qāim (422-467/1031-1075) rebuked Jalālu 'd-Dawlah (416-435) for not punishing his slave for entering an orchard of the Caliph, "he asked the judges not to deliver judgement, the jurists to refrain from delivering response and the preachers to refrain from their duties, which forced the Buwayhid *amīr* to petition the Caliph"³⁹. Meanwhile, the Caliph laid emphasis on his religious duties, as a means of fortifying his prerogative against the unscrupulous behaviour of the Buwayhids, which was constantly increasing. We may note in particular, as an event without previous parallel, that the Caliph, al-Qāim, wrote a theological work in the orthodox Sunnī strain which was read out every Friday in the circle of the traditionists in the mosque of al-Mahdī "⁴⁰.

As a counter-balance to this Sunnī party, the Buwayhids for their part began to depend largely on the Shī'ah. It is said that Mu'izzu 'd-Dawlah intended from the very beginning to abolish the 'Abbāsīd Caliphate and to transfer it to Abu 'l-Ḥasan Muḥammad ibn Yahyā az-Zaydī⁴¹. He was deterred from carrying out this scheme by his *wazīr* (vizier), who told him, "today you are faced with a caliph whom you and your followers believe has no right to the caliphate; thus if you command them they will kill him and consider themselves innocent of his blood, whereas if you replace him by an 'Alid Caliph, whom you and your followers believe to be the rightful caliph, then if he commands them to kill you, they will perform his command"⁴².

From this, it would appear that the Buwayhids maintained the caliphate "purely for political reasons" because they were aware that "had they destroyed the caliphate in Baghdad, the institution would have reappeared elsewhere"⁴³. The caliphate for them, then, was a means to legalize their authority over the

Sunnites in their state, and to strengthen their diplomatic relations with the world outside by the weight of the moral authority and respect which the Sunnite caliph still enjoyed.

Thus it is obvious that the Buwayhid period was the scene of a severe struggle between two divergent political powers, and echoing this, of two doctrinal schools within the Muslim community. As for the importance of this period in the founding and developing of Shī'ite theology, it can be demonstrated in two points:

First: With the beginning of the Buwayhid regime, a severe dogmatic struggle arose between the two dominant doctrines, the Shī'ites and the Sunnites. "It is certain that the Buwayhids welcomed somewhat indiscriminately the Shī'īs or Mu'tazilīs of different shades of opinion, but politically they were Twelvers"⁴⁴. This sectarian struggle culminated in 351 AH, when Mu'izzu 'd-Dawlah caused Shī'ite curses to be inscribed on the walls of the mosques which run thus; "May God curse Mu'āwiyah ibn Abī Sufyān, and him who prevented al-Ḥasan's body from being buried behind the grave of his grandfather, and him who exiled Abū Dharr, and him who expelled al-'Abbās from the *shūrā* (electoral council)"⁴⁵. These curses were publicly displayed while the Caliph was unable to forbid them.

This dogmatic rift deepened still further when Mu'izzu 'd-Dawlah introduced, "influenced perhaps by Daylamite practices"⁴⁶, the commemorating of the martyrdom of al-Ḥusayn. On the 10th of Muḥarram, *Āshūrā* day, the chief festival of the Shī'ah, the bazaars were closed, the butchers suspended business, the cooks ceased cooking, the cisterns were emptied of their contents, pitchers were placed with felt covering the streets, women walked about with fallen tresses, blackened faces, torn dresses, striking their faces and wailing for al-Ḥusayn. In the same year, on the 18th Dhu 'l-Ḥijjah, the celebration of the day

of the "pond of Khumm", the day on which the Prophet is said to have nominated 'Alī as his successor, was officially inaugurated at Baghdad, fires were lit, drums were beaten, horns blown, and people hastened from the early morning to the cemetery of Quraysh"⁴⁷.

These foreign and newly imported practices gave rise to bitter sectarian hatreds, and were responsible for sporadic civil wars. "In 388, a destructive conflict broke out between the two sects and consequently al-Karkh district was plundered"⁴⁸. In 346 AH a similar civil disturbance occurred between "the Shī'ite section of al-Karkh and the Sunnites because of *as-sabb*"*, which resulted in a heavy massacre"⁴⁹. These civil conflicts took place continually in the year 348-351, 353, 393-398 and 409.

This was the characteristic feature of the period; what, then, was the attitude of al-Mufīd towards current events? al-Mufīd as the "head of the Shī'ah and the teacher of the Rawāfiq"⁵⁰ was destined to play an active role in defending the dogma of the Ithnā-'Ashariyyah school of the Shī'ah. Due to "his high ranking position at the courts of the Buwayhids and the princes of dynasties"⁵¹, he enjoyed spiritual supremacy and considerable influence over the affairs of that time. Thus, it was during the Buwayhid period and because of their energetic support, says al-Maqrīzī, "that the teachings of the Rawāfiq spread widely in North Africa, Syria, Diyār Bakr, Kūfah, Baṣrah, Baghdād, all 'Irāq, Khurāsān, Transoxiana, Ḥijāz, Yaman and Baḥrayn"⁵². As a result of this tremendous expansion of Shī'ism, there were ceaseless disturbances and dissensions between the Shī'ites and the Sunnites. In 393 AH, widespread disturbances occurred and the trouble-makers spread all over the country, a thing which caused Bahāu 'd-Dawlah (989-1012 AD) to send the leader of the army to deal with the situation. He reached Baghdad, suppressed by force the agitators and prevented both

* Denouncing certain companions of the Holy Prophet (of Islam).

the Sunnites and the Shī'ites from demonstrating their doctrines and expelled Ibnu 'l-Mu'allim, the Shaykh of the Imāmiyyah. Thus the city regained its tranquillity⁵³.

Second: The second reason for the importance of the Buwayhids in the development of Shī'ah theology, is that they provided a meeting point where Shī'ah theology was influenced by the rational methods of the Mu'tazilah. This dogmatic and intellectual relationship which, in the words of Prof. Macdonald, is "the great mystery of Muslim History"⁵⁴, has still not received full attention, and can only be made clear by comparative research based on a profound historical study of the Buwayhid period from the dogmatic point of view.

At the end of the third century of the Hijrah, Mu'tazilism was suffering a severe decline in political influence, which began early with the accession of al-Mutawakkil to the caliphate (232/847). This political decline was coupled at the beginning of the fourth century with a decisive triumph of Ash'arism which "evolved a new orthodox scholasticism and defeated the Mu'tazilites on their own ground"⁵⁵. In this perilous situation, the Mu'tazilah might have been induced by the instinct of self-preservation to conclude a political alliance with Shī'ism, then the official and politically influential doctrine of the state. One of the reasons which facilitated this compromise was that "the vagueness of Rāfiḍites had been replaced by the much more definite Imāmite form of Shī'ism"⁵⁶. It is curious that the very Mu'tazilism of which "the refutation and rejection of the extremely heterogenous elements of Rāfiḍites was the centre of its invaluable service to the cause of Islam"⁵⁷, was now trying to come to some sort of agreement with it. Here we have also to bear in mind that the "suggestion has been made that Mu'tazilism was essentially an attempt to work out a compromise that would in part overcome the cleavage between Sunnites and Shī'ites"⁵⁸.

At any rate, Shī'ism and Mu'tazilism, as adh-Dhahabī says, "established from about 370 AH a friendly and brotherly relationship with each other"⁵⁹. al-Maḡdisī was fully aware of this inter-relation; he states that "the majority of the Shī'ah in Persia were Mu'tazilite, and that the Buwayhid, 'Aḡdu 'd-Dawlah adopted it"⁶⁰. This dogmatic inter-relation is affirmed by both Adam Mez and Goldziher, who say that "theologically the Shī'ahs are the heirs of the Mu'tazilah", and that "in the fourth century there was actually no real system of Shī'ite theology; henceforth the Shī'ite *amīr*, 'Aḡdu 'd-Dawlah, merely adapted himself to the view of the Mu'tazilite"⁶¹.

This attachment of Mu'tazilism to the ruling power was of special importance, which is confirmed by al-Maḡrīzī, who says that "Mu'tazilism spread considerably under the Buwayhids regime in Iraq, Khurāsān and Transoxiana"⁶².

I am inclined to suggest that the period in which aṣ-Ṣāḡib ibn 'Abbād (326-385/939-995) governed the empire independently during the emirate of Fakhr 'd-Dawlah al-Buwayhī and which lasted eighteen years (367-385/977-995) is the period within which Shī'ism adopted the rational system of Mu'tazilism.

Abu 'l-Qāsim Ismā'īl ibn 'Abbād aṣ-Ṣāḡib is known as an "illustrious Mu'tazilite who inherited his ideas from his father who wrote a book on the ordinances of the Qur'ān, *Aḡkāmū 'l-Qur'ān*, in which he supported Mu'tazilism"⁶³. In his formative years, aṣ-Ṣāḡib was greatly influenced by and imbued with their dogmas till he came to be known "as one of their foremost masters"⁶⁴. When he was *wazīr*, he used his office as a means to support whole-heartedly the Mu'tazilite teachings so "people began to follow the doctrine he professed, and copy his words, desiring reward from him"⁶⁵. aṣ-Ṣāḡib has also been mentioned among the Shī'ah divines and was accused of Shī'ite tendencies. Ibn Ḥajar says "that he added to the innovation of

the Mu'tazilah the heterodoxy of the Shī'ah"⁶⁶.

This intellectual influence of Mu'tazilism on Shī'ism which is confirmed by ash-Shahrastānī⁶⁷, Ibn Taymiyyah⁶⁸ and ad-Dawānī⁶⁹ was emphatically rejected by the Shī'ah. They were, and still are, anxious to deny this impact on their dogmas, which are supposed to be the fruits of the direct teachings of the divinely-inspired Imāms. al-Mufīd himself rejected this charge, which seems to be very old, and denied that the Shī'ah were influenced by and borrowed from the Mu'tazilah⁷⁰. But a critical and comparative study of his book, *Taṣḥīḥ I'tiqādātī 'l-Imāmiyyah* with that of his master, Ibn Bābawayh al-Qummī, which is the purpose of this thesis, establishes the fact that the shifting of Shī'ah theology from an authoritarian stand, represented by Ibn Bābawayh, to a rational interpretation cultivated first by al-Mufīd, was a direct result of this Mu'tazilite impact which is specifically denied by him. It is worth observing that the "Mu'tazilite influence has maintained its hold on the Shī'itic literature up to the present time. It is a serious error to assert that after the decisive victory of the Ash'arite theology, the Mu'tazilite teachings ceased to play any active part in religion or literature. The rich dogmatic literature of the Shī'ah extending into our own days refutes such an assertion"⁷¹.

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NOTES

PART ONE

- ¹ 'Ukbarī, 'Ukbarāwī: his *nisbah* (relationship) is derived from a small town, 'Ukbar, near ad-Dujayl, about ten *farsakhs* distance from Baghdad. The name seems not to be Arabic. See Yāqūt, *Mu'jamu 'l-buldān*, vol.5, p.203.
- ² Abu 'l-Ḥasan, 'Alī ibn 'Īsā ar-Rummānī al-Ikshīdī al-Warrāq, one of the most illustrious doctors of the Mu'tazilah of the tenth class, well known as an exegetist, philologist and theologian. He was called 'Alī al-Jāmi' because of his profound and comprehensive knowledge of *Fiqh*, Qur'ān, *Naḥw* and *Kalām*. aṣ-Ṣāhib ibn 'Abbād, on being questioned if he, too, had written a commentary on the Qur'ān, replied 'Alī ibn 'Īsā had left nothing for him to do. He has also been accused of Shī'ite tendencies. See Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, *al-Munyah wa 'l-amal*, p.65. Yāqūt, *Mu'jamu 'l-udabā'*, vol.1.14, p.73; as-Suyūfī, *Tabaqātu 'l-mufasssīrīn*, p.24.
- ³ al-Majlisī, *Biḥāru 'l-anwār*, the introduction to the new edition by ash-Shīrāzī, vol.1.1, p.71.
- ⁴ Ibn Shahrāshūb, *Ma'ālimu 'l-ulamā'*, p.101.
- ⁵ al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī, *Tārīkh Baghdād*, vol.1.3, p.231.
- ⁶ an-Najāshī, *ar-Rijāl*, p.286.
- ⁷ al-Khwānsārī, *Rawḍātu 'l-jannāt*, p.563.
- ⁸ aṭ-Ṭūsī, *Rijālu 'sh-Shī'ah*, p.186.
- ⁹ Ibn Shahrāshūb, op. cit., p.101. Cf., Borckelmann, C., GAL, Supp.1, p.322. Also, *E.I.*, the article, "al-Mufīd", vol.1.3, ii, p.625.
- ¹⁰ al-Ushnān, an old suburb of Baghdad, see *Mu'jamu 'l-buldān*, vol.1, p.262.
- ¹¹ aṭ-Ṭūsī, *ar-Rijāl*, p.187.
- ¹² Donaldson, D.M., *The Shī'ite Religion*, p.287.
- ¹³ Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, p.178.
- ¹⁴ aṣ-Ṣafādī, *al-Wāfi bi 'l-wafayāt*, vol.1.5, p.116.
- ¹⁵ Ibn Ḥajar, *Lisānu 'l-mizān*, vol.1.5, p.368.

- ¹⁶ Ibn Kathīr, *al-Bidāyah*, vol.1.12, p.15.
- ¹⁷ al-Khwānsārī, *Rawḍātu 'l-jannāt*, op. cit, p.563.
- ¹⁸ Muḥsin al-Amīn, al-‘Āmilī, *A yānu 'sh-Shī'ah*, vol.1, pt.2, p.106.
- ¹⁹ Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., vol.5, p.368.
- ²⁰ al-Majlisī, *Biḥāru 'l-anwār*, the introduction to the new edition by ash-Shīrāzī, vol. 1, p.71.
- ²¹ For his life, see: an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.89; Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., vol.1.2, p.125; Ibn Shahrāshūb, op. cit., p.26.
- ²² For his life, see: Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, op. cit., p.196.
- ²³ For his life, see: Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayātu 'l-a'yān*, vol.2, p.2; an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.283; Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., vol.1.5, p.141.
- ²⁴ For his life, see: Ibnu 'l-Murtaḍā, op. cit., p.19; an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.192; Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., vol.1.4, p.223.
- ²⁵ For his life, see: Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., vol.1.5, p.135. Also Ibn Shahrāshūb, op. cit., p.102.
- ²⁶ The refutation is called *al-Muḥtaḍir*, published in an-Najaf al-Ashraf (Iraq) in 1370/1951. See: ash-Shaykh ‘Abdullāh, *Falāsifatū 'sh-Shī'ah*, pp.454-66.
- ²⁷ Ibnu 'l-Athīr, *al-Kāmil*, vol.1.8, p.337, Ḥasan Ibrāhīm Ḥasan, *Tārīkhu 'l-Islāmi 's-siyāsī*, vol.1.3, p.43.
- ²⁸ *E.I.*, the article, "Buwayhids", by Cl. Cahen, vol.1, ii, p.1350.
- ²⁹ ad-Dūrī, ‘Abdu 'l-‘Azīz, *Dirāsāt fī 'l-‘uṣūri 'l-‘Abbāsiyyah al-muta'akhhirah*, p.249.
- ³⁰ *Ibid.*, p.249. See also: Arnold, T., *The Caliphate*, p.61; al-Khuḍarī, *Muḥāḍarāt fī tārikhi 'l-umami 'l-Islāmiyyah*, vol.1.2, p.380.
- ³¹ al-Maqrīzī, *al-Khiṭaṭ*, vol.1.2, p.308.
- ³² Arnold, T., op. cit., p.61.
- ³³ Ibnu 'l-Athīr, op. cit., vol.1.8, p.339.
- ³⁴ ad-Dūrī, op. cit., p.248. See p.11.
- ³⁵ Arnold, T., op. cit., p.61.
- ³⁶ Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *al-Muntaẓim*, vol.1.7. p.75.
- ³⁷ Quoted from ad-Dūrī, op. cit., p.255.
- ³⁸ Arnold, T., op. cit., p.65.
- ³⁹ Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, op. cit., vol.8, p.82.
- ⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, vol.1.8, p.109. Also, Mez, Adam, *The Renaissance of Islam*, Eng. transl. by Khudā Bukhsh and Margoliouth, p.61.
- ⁴¹ ad-Dūrī, op. cit., p.248.
- ⁴² Ibnu 'l-Athīr, op. cit., vol.8, p.339; Cf., ad-Dūrī, op. cit., p.248.
- ⁴³ *Ibid.*; al-Khuḍarī, op. cit., vol.2., p.378.

- ⁴⁴ *E.I.*, the article, "Buwayhids", by Cl. Cahen, vol.1, ii, p.1352.
- ⁴⁵ as-Suyūfī, *Tārīkh al-khulafā'*, p.266; Ibn Khaldūn, *at-Tārīkh*, vol.4, p.886; Cf., Mez, Adam, op. cit., p.68.
- ⁴⁶ *E.I.*, the article, "Buwayhids", vol.1, ii, p.1352.
- ⁴⁷ Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, op. cit., vol.7, p.10; Ibn Kathīr, *al-Bidāyah*, vol.11, p.243. Also, Mez, Adam, op. cit., p.69.
- ⁴⁸ Ibn Kathīr, op. cit., vol.II, p.221.
- ⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p.232.
- ⁵⁰ Ibn Taghrī Birdī, *an-Nujūmu 'z-zāhirah*, vol.4, p.258; aṣ-Ṣafadī, op. cit., vol.5, p.116.
- ⁵¹ Ibn Taghrī Birdī, op. cit., vol.4, p.258.
- ⁵² al-Maqrīzī, *al-Khiṭaṭ*, vol.2, p.308.
- ⁵³ Ibnu 'l-Athīr, op. cit., vol.9, p.126.
- ⁵⁴ Quoted from Holister, J.N., *The Shī'a of India*, p.26.
- ⁵⁵ Gibb, H.A.R., *Mohammadanism*, p.116.
- ⁵⁶ Watt, W.M., *Islamic Philosophy and Theology*, p.83.
- ⁵⁷ Nyberg, H.S., his intro. to his ed. of *Kitābu 'l-Intiṣār*, p.24. Zuhdī Ḥasan Jārullāh
- ⁵⁸ Watt, W.M., op. cit., p.83.
- ⁵⁹ adh-Dhababī, *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.2, p.230; (Quoted from, *al-Mu'tazilah*, p.207).
- ⁶⁰ al-Maqrīsī, *Aḥsanu 't-taqāsīm*, p.439.
- ⁶¹ Mez, Adam, op. cit., p.62; Cf. Goldziher, L, *Vorlesungen über den Islam*, the Arabic translation, p.224.
- ⁶² al-Maqrīzī, op. cit., vol.1.2, p.358.
- ⁶³ Yāqūt, *Mu'jamu 'l-udabā'*, vol.6, p.127.
- ⁶⁴ Ibn Ḥajar, *Lisānu 'l-mizān*, vol.1, p.413.
- ⁶⁵ Yāqūt, op. cit., vol.6, p.225.
- ⁶⁶ Ibn Ḥajar, op. cit., p.413.
- ⁶⁷ ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal*, vol.1, p.209. Also, p.224.
- ⁶⁸ Ibn Taymiyyah, *ar-Rasāil*, vol.3, p.115.
- ⁶⁹ ad-Dawānī, Jalālu 'd-Dīn, *Sharhu 'l-'aqāidi 'l-'Aqūdiyyah*, (quoted from *Muḥammad 'Abduh bayna 'l-falāsifah wa 'l-mutakallimīn*, edited by Sulaymān Dunyā, p.26).
- ⁷⁰ al-Mufīd, *Ajwibatu 'l-masāili 's-saghāniyyah*, MS. No.442, an-Najaf al-Ashraf, (Iraq), Maktabat Muḥsin al-Ḥakīm, fol. 14.
- ⁷¹ Goldziher, I., op. cit., p.222.

PART TWO

*In the Name of Allāh,
the Merciful, the Compassionate*

Praise be to Allāh for His bounties, and peace be upon Muḥammad and his family. This is the emendation of *A Shī'ite Creed* of Abū Ja'far Ibn Bābawayh, may Allāh have mercy upon him, compiled by ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd Abū 'Abdillāh Muḥammad ibn an-Nu'mān*, may Allāh have mercy upon him.

* N reads *Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad*, which is correct.

1. THE METAPHORICAL INTERPRETATION OF
THE BARING OF THE SHANK
(KASHFU 'S-SĀQ)

The learned divine, Abū Ja‘far *Muḥammad ibn ‘Alī ibn al-Ḥusayn Ibn Bābawayh al-Qummī, died in 381 AH¹, says, in the treaties of his (Shī‘ite) creed, on the meaning of His, the Exalted's Speech: *On a day when a shank (sāq) shall be bared, and they shall be summoned to prostrate themselves, but they cannot* [68:42]. *as-Sāq* (shank) here means the result, or consummation of the affair and its intensity.

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: The meaning of the verse quoted above is intended for the Day of Resurrection on which an important, hard and intense matter will be disclosed, and that will be the reckoning and scrutinizing of (man's) actions; the recompensing for (good or bad) deeds, and the divulging of the heart secrets; the revealing of mysteries, and the appraisal of good and bad acts. Hence, He (Allāh) designates by *as-sāq* the gravity of the matter; and by the same reasoning, the Arabs used to symbolize the violence and severity of war with their peculiar expression, "The war broke out [amongst us] (*qāmati 'l-ḥarbu [binā] ‘alā sāq*)"². And their poet, Sa‘d ibn Khālid, says:

*The war disclosed all its severity,
and revealed its full calamity.
The eagle of death appeared,
bearing in its train the decreed fate.*

Also, like this is their expression, "The fair is set up", (*qad qāmati 's-sūq*), denoting when the people crowd together, and buying and selling goes briskly with much effort and exertion.

2. THE METAPHORICAL INTERPRETATION OF "THE HAND (*AL-YAD*)"

Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, similarly explains "hand" in the sense of strength, and adduces, to support his view, the verse: *And remember Our servant David, possessed of strength* (*ayd*) [38:17]. And he says: *dha 'l-ayd*, means possessed of strength (*quwwah*).

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: The word *yad* has another interpretation which denotes grace. The poet says:

*He has bestowed favours on me which I do not deny;
for indeed denial of favours is but ingratitude.*

So, it is possible that the saying of Allāh, the Exalted, *Dāwūda dha 'l-ayd*, means Dāwūd (David), a bountiful man. Similar, also, is the saying of Allāh: *Nay, but both His hands are outspread* [5:64]. Here, by "The two hands", are meant the two favours of this life and the life hereafter.

3. THE BREATHING OF THE SPIRIT (INTO MAN) (*NAFKHU 'L -ARWĀḤ*)

Abū Ja'far says, concerning the Spirit in the Speech of Allāh, the Exalted: *And I breathed into it of My Spirit* [15:29], that it is, in this context, a created Spirit (*rūḥ*). He attributes it to Himself in the same way as He attributes the House (Ka'bah) to Himself, although it is created by Him.

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: The reason for attributing the Spirit or the House to Himself is not merely that they were

created by Him; but, also, that they have been distinguished by His greatness and glory, and endowed with His awfulness. This indicates that this Spirit and this House are favoured with His sublimity and glory, which have not been granted to any other spirit or house save them, thus to draw the attention of creation – by this means – to believe in and exalt them.

4. METONYM AND METAPHOR (IN THE QUR'ĀN)

Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, has said, concerning the interpretation of the Speech of Allāh, the Exalted: (O Iblīs!) *What prevented thee from prostrating thyself before that I created with My two hands (yadayy)?* [38:75]. (By 'two hands'), He means 'My strength and My power (*qudratī wa quwwatī*).'

Abū 'Abdillāh (al-Mufīd) says: This is not correct³, since it involves repetition in meaning and implies that Allāh says: 'By My strength, by My strength', or 'By My power, by My power', because literally 'strength' is equivalent to 'power', and vice versa, and there is no meaning in such a statement. The correct explanation is that advanced above concerning grace (*lutf*); consequently, the verse signifies, 'Allāh's double grace in this world and the world hereafter'. In the same way, the *ba* in Allāh's saying (*bi yadayya*), 'with My two hands', stands for (*lām*), as if Allāh has said: "(*Khalaqtu liyadayya*), I have created for My hands", meaning by this, 'for My double grace', as He has said: *And I have not created jinn and mankind except to worship Me* [51:56], since worship is a gift from Allāh, and His grace upon them, for it leads them to His perpetual grace. A probable meaning of 'both My hands', is the double meaning of power and grace as though the Almighty said, "created with My own power and grace". Another explanation is that the

attribution of the 'hands' to Allāh was intended to stress the overwhelming power of Allāh, and the act was accomplished by His sole will, irrespective of His strength or grace or anything else. This interpretation is supported by the verse: *That is for what thy hands have forwarded* [22:10], and it means 'what you have forwarded of your deeds'; and also by Allāh's saying: *Whatever misfortune may visit you is for what your own hands have earned* [42:30], which signifies 'what you have acquired'. The Arabs often used the proverb: "Thy hand hath tied, and thy mouth hath blown into it" (*yadāka awkatā wa fūka nafakh*)⁴, in the sense that it was your doing and you carried it out and performed it though you did not use your actual hands (limbs) in it.

5. THE ATTRIBUTION OF SCHEMING: BEGUILING AND MOCKERY TO ALLĀH

Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, maintained that the meaning of Allāh's saying: (The hypocrites) *seek to beguile Allāh, but it is He Who beguileth them* [4:142], and: *They have forgotten Allāh, so He hath forgotten them* [9:67], and: *And they devised, and Allāh devised, and Allāh is the best of devisers* [3:54], and: *Allāh shall mock them* [2:15], is that Allāh will requite them for their base acts⁵.

Abū 'Abdillāh concurs, and adds that the interpretation advanced by Abū Ja'far is sound, but he has not supplied the reason; for the reason for the interpretation given above is that the Arabs often called a thing by the name of the recompense it brought, because of the relation which exists, and the comparison which can be made between the name and the recompense, since acts which bring a certain requital can fittingly be called by its name⁶.

Allāh says: *Those who consume the property of orphans un-*

justly, they only consume fire in their belies [4:10]. Thus, He called the consumed property, though in itself good, fire, because the punishment for it is fire.

6. THE ATTRIBUTION OF FORGETFULNESS TO ALLĀH

Abū Ja‘far cites: "Forgetfulness, like beguiling, can only be applied to Allāh in the sense that with this He will requite the evil-doers."

Abū ‘Abdillāh adds that the true interpretation is not what has been advanced, because forgetfulness literally signifies both abandonment and postponement. Allāh, the Exalted, says: *Whatever verse We abrogate or cause to be forgotten, We bring one better than it or the like of it* [2:106]. Now, here, 'what We abrogate' means, 'We leave it in place or suspend it'. Hence, the Exalted, means by 'They forget Allāh', that 'they departed from their obedience to Allāh', and He meant by 'so He forgot them', that, 'He withdraws His mercy from them'. and He means by: *So He makes them forget their own souls* [59:19] that 'He made them uneasy through His withdrawal, and that He obliged them to disregard their own good and not to care for their own interest'. This is a tenable interpretation of the verse, though the other one, advanced by Abū Ja‘far, is not refuted, and Allāh, the Exalted, is the granter of success.

7. THE ATTRIBUTES OF ALLĀH (*ŞIFĀT ALLĀH*)

Abū Ja‘far says: "Whenever we describe Allāh, the Blessed, the Sublime, by the attributes of His essence, . . ." ⁷

Abū ‘Abdillāh, may Allāh have mercy upon him, adds that

the attributes of Allāh are of two categories: the first are those relating to His essence and called, for this reason, the Attributes of Essence (*ṣifātū 'dh-dhāt*); the second category are those relating to His acts and called the Attributes of Action (*ṣifātū 'l- fi 'l*). The Attributes of Essence are those inherent in it, those of which the essence must necessarily be possessed, and hence cannot be separated from His essence. As for the Attributes of Action, they apply to Allāh only at the time of the action and not before it. Moreover, the Attributes of Essence involve the description of Allāh by epithets such as the Ever-living (*ḥayy*), the Powerful (*qādir*), the Omniscient (*'ālim*), which Allāh possesses eternally and forever, while the Attributes of Action, such as the Creator (*khāliq*), the Sustainer (*rāziq*), the Giver of new life (*muḥyi*, Revivifier), the Annihilator (*mumīt*), the Originator (*mubdī*), the Resurrector (*mu 'īd*), are applicable only after the action and not before it. The (second) distinction between the Attributes of Essence and those of Action is that, in the case of the Attributes of Essence, the opposite cannot be predicted of the One Who is in possession of them, and cannot be separated from them (i.e., these attributes), whilst in the case of the Attributes of Action, their opposites can be predicted to the Possessor, and He can be separated from them. You cannot say, for example, that He dies or is weak, or is ignorant, and you cannot describe Him as being anything other than Living, Knowing and Powerful, whilst you can say that Allāh is not a Creator today, He is not the Giver of sustenance to Zayd, or that He is not the Giver of new life (Revivifier), or that He is not the Originator of something at this particular time, or He is not the Restorer of it. Furthermore, Allāh can be described by such antonyms as He gives and withholds, causes to live and causes to die, He originates and resurrects, He brings into existence and annihilates. This is the salient point⁸ which should be considered

concerning the Attributes of Essence and Action; and the distinction between them.

8. THE BELIEF CONCERNING THE ORIGINATION OF HUMAN ACTIONS

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja‘far⁹, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Human actions are created (*makhlūqah*), in the sense that Allāh possesses fore-knowledge (*khalq taqdīr*) [of them], and not in the sense that Allāh compels mankind to act in a particular manner by creating a certain disposition (*khalq takwīn*). The meaning of all this is that Allāh never ceases to be aware of the potentialities (*maqādir*) of human beings."

Abū ‘Abdillāh, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: The correct doctrine transmitted from the Family of the Prophet (*Ahlu 'l-Bayt*), may Allāh bless him and his progeny, is that, "the actions of men are not created by Allāh", and what is related by Abū Ja‘far is not a genuine traditions, and the authority for it not acceptable. On the contrary, the genuine reports are diametrically opposed to it, so if this were so – as the unscrupulous scholars maintained – then it could be said, for instance, that he who knew the Prophet 'created' him, or he who knew something about what the Almighty Allāh has fashioned and proved it for himself (i.e., confirmed his belief in it) created this particular thing. Thus the (rational) argument shows that this is a fallacy which even the rank and file of the Imāms' following would not perpetrate, least of all the Imāms themselves, peace be upon them. Predestination, however, linguistically implies creation, since to determine a thing involves action, while the knowledge, or conception, of a thing does not; yet in all circumstances Allāh, the Exalted, is far removed from the creation of abominable or base deeds.

It has been related that Abu 'l-Ḥasan ‘Alī ibn Muḥammad

ibn 'Alī ibn Mūsā ar-Riḍā, peace be upon them, was asked about human actions, whether they are created by Allāh; he, peace be upon him, answered: "If He created their actions, He would not have dissociated Himself from them. Whereas He, the Exalted, stated that: *Allāh renounces the polytheists* (as does also) *His Messenger* [9:3], which signifies that He dissociates Himself from their polytheism and base actions, and not from their beings."

Abū Ḥanīfah asked Abu 'l-Ḥasan Mūsā ibn Ja'far, peace be upon them both, about human actions, and from whom they proceed; he replied that there were three alternatives:-

- i) that all actions are from Allāh, the Sublime, or,
- ii) that they proceed jointly from man and Allāh, or
- iii) that they are from man alone.

Now, if they were all from Allāh, the Sublime, then He alone deserves to be praised for their goodness or to be blamed for their baseness, and so praise or blame for them pertain to none save Him; if they are created jointly by Allāh and His servant, then the praise or the blame would pertain to them both. Since these two alternatives are absurd, it is self-evident that human actions are all from men; it rests with Him; if He pleases, He has the right to punish them for their wickedness, or if He pleases He will pardon them, for the reward of piety and forgiveness is in His hands. And there are still further traditions and reports which can be adduced in support of this.

9. CONCERNING HUMAN ACTIONS (*FASLUN FĪ AF'ĀLI 'L-KHALQ*)

However, it is an established fact that the Book of Allāh, the Exalted, takes precedence over the traditions and reports. Hence it should be the touchstone for determining the genuine reports and the fabrications. (If this fact is admitted), then what-

ever the Qur'ān approves is absolutely true, and should be followed and that alone. Now, the Almighty says: *Who has created all things well, and He originated the creation of man out of clay* [32:7]. So He declares that whatever He has created is good and far from being abominable; had He created abominable actions, He would never have characterized them as praiseworthy actions. Moreover, the affirmation that what Allāh has created is good refutes the assumption of those who maintained that Allāh is the Creator of base actions. The Almighty also says: *Thou seest not in the creation of the All-merciful any imperfection* [67:3], and since unbelief and falsehood are defects, so also is self-contradictory speech; how, then, can they attribute human actions to Allāh, knowing that they are full of defects and contradictions, when Allāh Himself denounced and rejected such attributions, and affirmed that: *Thou seest not in the creation of the All-merciful any imperfection.*

10. PREDESTINATION AND FREE WILL
(*AL-JABR WA 'T-TAFWĪD*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "There is neither (complete) compulsion (or constraint) (on human beings), nor (complete) delegation (or freedom), but the matter is midway between the two [extremes] (*amrun bayna amrayn*)." Then he adduces, to support this definition, a *mursal* tradition. He was asked to define what was meant by 'an affair midway between the two'. He said: "For instance, you see a man intent upon a crime and you forbid him to do it, but he does not desist, and you leave him; then he commits the crime. Now, because he did not accept (your advice) and you left him, this does not mean that you are the person who commanded him to commit the crime."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him,

comments that *jabr* is compulsion in respect of an act, and constraint by reason of coercion or overpowering; this involves the creation of an act in a living being without his having the power to reject or avoid it. It may convey, also, an action which, although within human capacity, a man might perform under compulsion or out of fear or constraint by reason of coercion. Nevertheless, it originally conveys the meaning of the performance of an act without having the power to avoid it, as has been demonstrated above. Thus, if the above-mentioned definition of *jabr* (compulsion) is approved, then it represents precisely the doctrine of the advocates of the belief that actions are created by Allāh. This is because they hold that Allāh has created the capacity in human beings, and that it is valid for one single action, and not for both the action and its opposite. And they maintain that Allāh has created evil in human beings. So, they are, in fact Predestinarians (Mujabbirah) and uphold predestination unquestioningly.

As for delegation (*tafwīḍ*)¹⁰, this means the lifting of the restrictions religion imposes on human beings – together with absolute freedom and licence in their actions – and this is the doctrine of the dualists and nihilist (*az-Zanādiqah wa aṣḥābu 'l-ibāḥāt*)¹¹.

(We believe) that the correct doctrine is a middle course between these two extremes. Hence, although Allāh has enabled man to act by virtue of the capacity with which He has endowed him, nevertheless, He has imposed with this restrictions, has delineated man's course of action, and has admonished him against abominable acts, through intimidation, and by His promises and threats; by thus enabling them, He does not constrain them to particular actions. On the other hand, as He forbids many actions to men, and places limitations on them and commands them to do good and admonishes them against evil, (this shows that) He does not delegate the

performance of their actions to them completely. This is the distinction between Compulsion and Delegation, as we have made it clear above.

11. THE BELIEF CONCERNING ALLAH'S
INTENTION AND WILL
(*AL-MASHĪAH WA 'L-IRĀDAH*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Allāh wills (*shā'a*) and intends (*arāda*), and He does not like (to be disobeyed) and He does not approve (of it); it is His will that nothing should take place except that of which He has knowledge, and His intention is the same."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufid, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that what has been mentioned by Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, in this respect is not clear and leads to error and confusion, because he relied on the apparent meaning of divergent traditions (*aḥādīth mukhtalifah*)¹² and following the transmitters without critical insight.

The fact of the matter is that Allāh wills only good acts and intends only those that are seemly (becoming), and He does not will base actions, and does not intend sins. Allāh is Exalted far above what the liars assert. Allāh says: *And Allāh wishes no injustice for His servants* [40:31], and He, the Sublime, says: *Allāh desires ease for you and desires not hardship for you* [2:185]; and He, the Sublime, says: *Allāh desires to make (things) clear to you, and to guide you in the ways of those who were before you* [4:26]. He, the Sublime, says: *And Allāh desires to turn to you (mercifully), and those who follow their lusts, desire that you should deviate (with great deviation)* [ibid.:27]. Also, He, the Sublime, says: *Allāh desires to make your task light for you, for man is created weak* [ibid.:28]. Thus, He, the Praised, declares that He desires not hardship for

His servants, instead He desires ease for them, and He intends to guide them, and He does not intend to delude them, and wills that their burdens should be light and He does not wish to overburden them. So, if He wills that they should sin, then He would never have wished that they should be shown the way and that their burden should be made light and their path easy, whereas the Book of Allāh bears witness to the opposite of what those in error assert falsely, that Allāh is Exalted above the assertion of the evil-doers.

As for the saying of Allāh: *Whomsoever Allāh desires to guide, He enlarges his breast to Islam; *and whomsoever He desires to lead astray, He makes his breast narrow and constricted* [6:125]*¹³, on which the Predestinarians are dependent in this matter, then there is no support for the advocates of predestination in this; since the meaning of the verse is that if Allāh intends to bestow His grace and favour on man as the reward of his obedience, then He will enlarge his breast to Islam and endow him with His favours, by which he is enabled to continue in obedience. Thus, *hidāyah* (guidance) signifies here *ni'mah* (grace). Allāh says in the Qur'an, relating the speech of the people of Paradise: *All praise is due to Allāh, Who guided us to this* [7:43], which means, 'Praise be to Allāh Who favoured us with His guidance and rewarded us for it'. In the same manner, *ḍalāl* (error) is equivalent to punishment in the saying of Allāh: *Surely the sinners are in error and insanity!* [54:47]. Thus Allāh called His punishment error and His grace guidance, and this because basically 'error' is equivalent to 'destruction' and 'guidance' to 'salvation'. Allāh, the Almighty, relating the speech of the Arab polytheists, says: *What, when we have gone astray in the earth, shall we indeed be (again) in a new creation?* [32:10], which means, 'when we have been destroyed'. Thus the meaning of the verse, 'If Allāh wills to guide' and 'If Allāh wills to lead him astray', is as

demonstrated above; as, also, the interpretation of the saying of Allāh, 'makes his breast narrow and constricted', is that He will withhold His succour from him as punishment for his rebelliousness and deprive him of the favours He bestowed upon him in retribution for his evil doing. Hence, the enlarging of the breast is the reward for obedience shown by men which itself came only by the succour of Allāh, (*sharḥu 'ṣ-ṣadr: thawābu 't-tā'ah bi 't-tawfīq*), whereas the narrowing of the breast is the punishment of rebelliousness, which in itself results from the withholding of (Divine) succour, (*tadyīqu 'ṣ-ṣadr: 'iqābu 'l-ma'ṣiyah biman 'i 't-tawfīq*). Thus, there is no support in the verse given above for the opponents (i.e., opponents of free will), who allege that Allāh, Almighty, turns men away from faith, and prevents them from accepting Islam, and that it is His intention they should not believe and His will that they should err.

As for Allāh's saying: *And if thy Lord had willed, whoever is in the earth would have believed, all of them, all together* [10:99], it was only to stress His Omnipotence and that He is able – if He wills – to constrain them to believe by coercion and compulsion, but it is His will that they should believe freely and by choice. The rest of the verse makes this (i.e., what we have said) plain: *Will you then constrain men to become believers?* [ibid.]. He is able to constrain them to believe if He wills, but He does not, even though it would be an easy task for Him if He willed. All the other verses which they adduce in support of their opinion are to be interpreted in the same way. As for the Predestinarians (Mujabbirah) they avoid asserting that Allāh wills that He should be disobeyed or denied and that His saints should be killed and His friends abused, by saying that everything should be in accordance with His fore-knowledge, and He intends that disobedience to Him should be a sin and absolutely forbidden. In fact, they commit

the very error which they eschewed and implicate themselves in what they abhor, because it was in the eternal knowledge of Allāh that bad is bad, and what is in the eternal, universal knowledge of Allāh should be, then what is the validity of their fleeing from a thing to its double, and taking refuge from one meaning in another that exactly reproduces it. How can they deal like this with intelligent people? Is their assumption not like the assertion of one who says: "I do not abuse Zayd but I abuse Abū 'Amr, and they are one and the same." And, like the self-contradictory speech of the Jews who said: "We do not deny Muḥammad (peace be upon him and his progeny) but we deny Aḥmad." This is but foolishness and ignorance on their part, and futile and weak effort on the part of those who rely on it.

12. THE BELIEF CONCERNING
DESTINY AND DECREE
(*AL-QADĀ' WA 'L-QADAR*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far says¹⁴, concerning the belief in Destiny and Decree, "Discussion of *qadar* is forbidden", and he narrates in support of this proposition an unauthentic tradition.

ash-Shaykh Abū 'Abdillāh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that Abū Ja'far relied in this on a *shādhdh ḥadīth* – which can be interpreted in many reasonable ways well-known to learned men, even if they established it as sound and authenticated. Thus his proposition does not constitute a definitive description. It would have been better had he not indulged himself by discussing the matter without fully comprehending its meaning. *Qadā'* is a well-defined term in Arabic usage, as may be proved by the evidence of the Qur'ān. *Qadā'* has four meanings:-

1. *Khalq* – 'creation', as is proved by the saying of Allāh, the Exalted: *Then He ascended Himself to heaven . . . So He*

- created them (qaḏāhunna) seven heavens in two days" [41: 11-12], that is, He created them – seven heavens – in two days.*
2. *Amr* – 'command', as is proved by the saying of Allāh, the Exalted: *And thy Lord has decreed (qaḏā')* *that you worship none but Him [17:23], that is, thy Lord has commanded.*
 3. *I'lām* – 'informing', as is proved by the saying of Allāh, the Exalted: *And we made known (qaḏaynā) to the Children of Israel [ibid.:4], that is We have informed them and told them about what is going to happen before it comes into existence.*
 4. *al-Faṣl fi 'l-ḥukm* – 'arbitration', as is proved by the saying of Allāh, the Exalted: *Allāh judges (yaqḏī) with justice [40:20], that is, He will arbitrate between the two litigants. Also His saying: And judgment (quḏiya) shall be given between them with justice [39:75], that is a judgment and arbitration will be given between them according to the right.*

It has been said that *qaḏā'* has a fifth meaning which signifies the completion of an affair (*al-farāgh mina 'l-amr*), and called in evidence of this is the saying of Allāh, reporting the speech of Joseph: *The matter on which you ask My opinion is decreed (quḏiya) [12:41], that is, has been accomplished. However, this fifth meaning is synonymous with that of creation.*

Now, if the above-mentioned meanings of *qaḏā'* are approved as the only correct ones, then the assumption of the Predestinarians that Allāh ordained sin for mankind is invalid, because there are only four alternatives, (i) either they mean that Allāh has created sin in His creation; in that case they would have to say He created sin in His creation, and not that He had imposed sin upon them, since creation (by the rules of grammar) takes place in them (*al-khalq fihim*) and not upon them (*lā 'alayhim*). Even if this were not so, yet the Almighty

Allāh declared him a liar who alleges that Allāh has created evil as He says: *Everything that He created He made well* [32:7], so He disclaims baseness in His creation and postulates its goodness, and disobedience is unanimously held to be base. (ii) Nor can they allege that 'He decreed sin' has the meaning of 'He commanded it', since Allāh declared him a liar who upholds this, and the Almighty says: *Verily Allāh does not command indecency, do you say against Allāh that which you do not know?* [7:28]. (iii) It is equally absurd to conceive of *qadā'* in the sense that Allāh had informed men about it, since men do not know whether they will obey or rebel in the future, and they have no detailed knowledge of what their conduct will be in the future. (iv) Similarly, it is absurd to denote by *qadā' bi 'dh-dhunūb* that Allāh has decreed sin for His creatures, since His decisions are all fair and right, and sin is from men alone; also this statement is unanimously admitted absurd.

Thus, it is self-evident that the assumption of those who attribute the creation of sin to Allāh is vain.

The argument given above, concerning *qadā'* and *qadar* makes it easy to perceive the correct doctrine on this question. We must admit that Allāh holds – in some measure – destiny and decree over His creation and over their actions. It is evident that we must understand by this, that *qadā'*, in the context of their good actions, is that He commands them, and, in the context of their base actions, that He forbids them, and, in the context of men themselves, that He created them, and, in the context of what (they acquire by His deed), that He brought it into existence for them. Similarly, by *qudrah*, in respect of the actions of the Almighty, its meaning should be understood as that He ordained it rightly and fittingly; and in respect of the actions of men that He commands good and forbids evil; and that He will reward or punish them. This is so because it is self-evident that whatever Allāh has decreed is for the good of

mankind and well-done; and far from frivolous. Thus, if Destiny and Decree, in speaking of the action of Allāh, are interpreted as has been illustrated, then their obscurity will vanish and (what they mean) can be demonstrated, and the truth will become apparent to the intelligent, and discussing them will not lead to corrupt doctrine and to deviation.

13. THE INTERPRETATION OF THE
REPORTS CONCERNING
AL-QADĀ' AND *AL-QADAR*

As for the reports which Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, relates concerning the prohibition of discussion of *qaḍā'* and *qadar*, they can bear two meanings: first, that the prohibition is restricted to those people whose discussions result in corrupt doctrine and divert them from the faith; for they will not keep their religion intact unless they refrain from discussion and abstain from indulging in it. Thus, the prohibition does not necessarily apply to all those who have reached years of discretion (*mukallafīn*), since what is good for some might prove to be bad for others¹⁵, *and, on the contrary, what is evil for some might be good for others*¹⁶, and this demonstrates why the Imāms, peace be upon them, endeavoured to direct their followers in religion in accordance with what they knew to be in their best interest. Secondly, discussion *of *qaḍā'* and *qadar**¹⁷ is probably prohibited, regarding the reasons and causes of what Allāh has created; and what He commands; and the religious duties He imposes; since the inquiry into, and asking for the causes and reasons of, creation and religious obligations are prohibited, because Allāh, the Exalted, has veiled these questions from the great majority of mankind. Do you not realize that no one is permitted to seek for the cause of the creation of all that has been created, in detail? And to ask,

'Why has He created this thing and that?'; until he has enumerated all created things and accounted for them. Nor is anyone permitted to ask, 'Why did He command this? and impose that? and forbid the other?' For His imposing this, and commanding that, is because He knows the best interests of His creation. Allāh, the Almighty, has not disclosed to any of His creatures the particular causes for what He has created or commanded or imposed, notwithstanding that He has stated *a priori* that He did not create His creation lightly ('*abath*'), but He did – indeed – create them with a wise purpose (*lī hikmah*). Yet, both reason and scripture (*sam'*) support this. Allāh says: *We created not the heaven and the earth, and whatsoever between them is, as though (we were) playing* [21:16]. And He says: *Do you think that We created you only for sport* [23:115]. And He says: *Surely We have created everything in measure* [54:49], that is, justly and fittingly. And He says: *And I have created jinn and men, only that they might serve Me* [51:56]. And He says, concerning what He enjoins on us: *The flesh of them shall not reach Allāh, neither blood, but piety shall reach Him from you* [22:37].

Thus, it is likely that Allāh, the Almighty, might create one particular animal to the end that it will cause some unbelievers (to believe); or it might lead some fornicators to repent; or that it might benefit some of the faithfuls; or that some evil-doers might take heed from it; or for the sheer benefit or the animal itself; or that it might serve as a warning to someone, whether in the earth or in the heavens, the aspects of which are all beyond our grasp and far from our comprehension, though we have to believe *a priori* that all that Allāh has created is for a wise purpose and not for mere sport. It is also possible that its purpose is to draw us near to obedience to Him and to keep us from rebelliousness, and that service through prayer stands as a Divine favour either to all the worshipers, or to a few. Since all

these hidden aspects of the Divine ordinances have been veiled from us, and since no authority exists for inquiring into it or asking for detailed explanation; though it is obligatory to believe that as a whole they have been created for a Divine purpose, hence it is forbidden to discuss *qaḍā'* and *qadar* in the context mentioned above.

At any rate, the foregoing argument is necessary only if the reports related by Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, are approved sound; otherwise, if they are untrustworthy, then we are relieved of the duty of refuting it. As for the tradition which he related on the authority of Zurārah¹⁸, it is the only sound one of them all, and its meaning is obvious, and it is not difficult for the intelligent to comprehend. It confirms the soundness of the doctrine of the People of Justice (*ahlu 'l-'adl*), and demonstrates the falsity of the doctrine of the Predestinarians. Have you not understood and comprehended the tradition we related from Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, "When Allāh will collect or (assemble) men (creation) on the Day of Resurrection, He will ask them concerning what He had enjoined on them and will not question them concerning what He had destined for them?" Moreover, the Qur'ān declares emphatically that men are responsible for their actions, so if their actions were decreed from Allāh, then He never would ask them about it, which demonstrates that the eternal decree means the 'creation of their things', and what this entails is that Allāh the Almighty will ask them only concerning what He enjoined on them in commanding them to do good deeds and to abstain from evil. Thus, according to this reasoning, the tradition mentioned above is an illustration supporting the foregoing explanation of *qaḍā'* and *qadar* which is comprehensible.

14. THE NATURAL RELIGION
(*AL-FITRAH*)

Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says, concerning the natural religion, that "Allāh has undoubtedly created man with a disposition towards (accepting) the Unity of Allāh (*tawhīd*)".

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, adds that Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, mentions *fiṭrah* without expounding its meaning, and he related the tradition without referring to its implications. The explicit meaning of his saying (i.e., Imām Ja'far aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him), "Allāh has created men", is that He brought them into existence in the beginning (*ibtada'ahum bi'l-ḥudūth*), hence *fiṭrah* means to create. Allāh, the Almighty, says: *Praise belongs to Allāh, Originator of the heavens and earth* [35:1] which means the Creator of the heavens and earth in the beginning and for the time to come. He also says: *Allāh's pattern (lit. origin) upon which He modelled mankind* [30:30], which means design on the basis of (or proto-type upon) which He created mankind. And this is what aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, meant by his saying: "Allāh has created men with a disposition towards accepting the Unity of Allāh", which also signifies that Allāh created them to affirm His Unity and that they should hold Him One. Yet this does not imply that He willed them to accept His Unity, because if He did so, then the whole of mankind would be monotheists (*muwahḥidūn*), whereas we see among ourselves those who are not, a fact which indicates that the Almighty has not decreed monotheism for mankind; rather He has created them to acquire it (through their own endeavour) – a fact which can be supported by the speech of Allāh: *I have not created jinn and mankind except to worship Me* [51:56], which plainly demonstrates that He has created them to worship Him.

He (Abū Ja‘far) also has related a tradition which is accepted as genuine both by *al-‘Āmmah* and *al-Khāṣṣah*¹⁹ (*lit.* the generality and elect) which runs thus, "Every infant is born according to the *fiṭrah*, then his parents make him a Jew or a Christian"²⁰, which also confirms the explanation mentioned above, which states that Allāh has created mankind to serve Him and with the disposition to affirm His Unity, hence whatsoever errors they commit on their own originate only from themselves and from the delusion of *jinn* and man with nothing from Allāh. As for the interpretation, Abū Ja‘far brings forward concerning Allāh's right guidance to men, this states the case exactly, and he has followed the ideal course. And what he has mentioned is in accordance with the principle of Divine Justice, and approved by reason, and is contrary to what the Predestinarians maintain, who contradict the speech of Allāh and what is approved sound by reason.

15. CONCERNING HUMAN CAPACITY

(*AL-ISTITĀ‘AH*)

Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says concerning human capacity, that our belief in this (question) is what Imām Mūsā ibn Ja‘far, peace be upon both of them, said that "A human being has capacity, provided he possesses four characteristics, . . ."

Abū ‘Abdillāh adds that what Abū Ja‘far relates from Abu ‘l-Ḥasan Mūsā, peace be upon him, on *al-istiṭā‘ah*, is a *shādhdh* tradition. *al-Istiṭā‘ah*, that is, capacity for action, in fact, consists of health and soundness of limb. Thus, every healthy man is a capable agent, and becomes impotent and deprived of capacity only when he is not in possession of health. He would be a capable agent even if he were not in possession of the instrument necessary for the performance of the action. Then in that

case, he is a capable agent impeded from action, and being impeded does not nullify the capacity, but merely the action. In this way a man might be able to marry, though he has not found a woman to marry. Allāh, the Exalted, says: *And whoever among you cannot afford to marry free believing women . . .* [4:25], which states that a man is able to marry though he has not yet married, and that he is capable of performing the pilgrimage before doing so, and is capable of going out in the Holy War although he has not done so. Allāh Almighty says: *And they will swear by Allāh, if we had been able, we would have gone out with you* (Muḥammad) [9:42], which indicates that they were able to go forth, though they refrained from doing so. And He, the Exalted, says: *Pilgrimage to the House is a duty which men owe to Allāh, every man who is able to make his way thither* [3:97]. Thus, He prescribed pilgrimage for men, which implies that they possessed the capacity for it beforehand. Then how could Abū Ja'far claim that fornication is dependent on the presence of the woman; whereas we have demonstrated that a man possesses the capacity although he lacks her presence. Hence, if the tradition related by Abū Ja'far is proved to be sound, then the only meaning of the capacity is to facilitate the action and pave the way for it. Yet, as we demonstrated, the absence of the means does not involve impotency, and capacity exists in spite of the impediment. Since this subject is a controversial one, and if we deal with it at length it will be long drawnout indeed, then what we have established about it is sufficient to the intelligent.

16. CONCERNING *AL-BADĀ'*

Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Our belief concerning *al-badā'* . . ."

Abū 'Abdillāh comments that the belief of the Imāmiyyah concerning *al-badā'* is approved by textual proof (*sam'*) rather than reason, and further affirmed by the narrations related on the authority of the Divinely guided Imāms, peace be upon them. Originally, *al-badā'* means emerging (circumstances). Allāh says: *But there would appear to them from Allāh that on which they had not reckoned* [39:47], which signifies that the retribution which Allāh has prepared for them, and which they had not taken into account or consideration. And He says: *There would appear to them and surround them the evils of what they have amassed* [39:48]. That is, they will be confronted with the recompense which they have earned, and that this will be made plain to them. The Arabs used to say, "*badā lī fulān 'amal ḥasan*", that is, it appeared to him as a praiseworthy act. And also, "*badā lahu kalām faṣīḥ*", that is, it seems to him an eloquent speech. Also they say, "*badā min fulān kadhā*" – in some case the (*lām*) may be substituted for (*min*). It will then read, "*badā lī fulān*". The interpretation of what the Imāmiyyah meant by: "*badā lī Allāh fī kadhā*", is that something about (a particular thing) appeared to Him, the meaning of 'something about it appeared to Allāh' is that something (i.e., a particular statement) about it emerged from Him.

This is not to imply an amendment of opinion (on the part of the Almighty), or that the heart of the matter, from being unintelligible, has been made plain to Him, since all the works of Allah (which are now) apparent in His creation, although (at one time) not in existence, were always known to Him from eternity. Then the term *badā'* can only apply to things which are unexpected or the occurrence of which was not taken into account, and can never apply to what was known to Him as bound to happen.

As for the saying of Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him:

"Allāh has never been influenced by a new consideration, as in the case of my son Ismā'īl"²¹, he meant by this what Allāh did for him in shielding him by abolishing the decree of death, although it was feared and expected for him; yet Allāh responded favourably to his petition by withholding this. The reports related on his authority, "that death was decreed for Ismā'īl twice, but I requested Allāh to abolish it and He did", supports this. Nevertheless, there may be a decree which is suspended and may be changed in certain cases; Allāh says: *And He has decreed a term for you, and a term is fixed with Him* [6:2], which makes it clear that there are two different sorts of terms of which one is conditional (liable to change), and might be lengthened or shortened, as may be seen in the saying of Allāh: *And no one groweth old who groweth old, nor is aught lessened of his life, but it is recorded in a book* [35:11]. And His saying: *And if the people of the township had believed and kept from evil, surely We should have showered them with blessing from the heaven and from the earth* [7:96].

These verses demonstrate plainly that their terms were conditional, being lengthened in accordance with righteousness and cut short on account of evil. Allāh Almighty, reporting the speech of Noah, peace be upon him, says: *Ask forgiveness of your Lord; surely, He is ever forgiving, He will send down upon you rain pouring in abundance* [71:10-11]. So He made the length of their term and also the showering of His favour conditional upon their sincere contrition; then, when they failed (in this), He cut short their term and annihilated them. Thus, (the reasoned argument given above) affirms that *badā'* is concerned only with what is a conditional decree, and never involves a change of mind from one decision to another, or the mutability of opinion – Allāh is Exalted far above what the liars allege. Nonetheless, some of our companions asserted that originally *badā'* designated the amendment of opinion, and the

change of mind from one particular decision to another, and that it applied to Allāh only in its metaphorical sense, in the same manner as 'anger' and 'pleasure' were applied to Him metaphorically. Yet this assertion does not harm our School, since metaphorical nouns can be applied to Allāh if they are mentioned in Scripture (*lit.* authorized by *sam* ' , that is, textual proof), and *badā'* is, as we have demonstrated, one of these mentioned in Scripture. What was approved by us in our interpretation was that it has the meaning of 'emerging', as we demonstrated above, and it means merely the emergence of what was unexpected and extraordinary, since, if it comes to be generalized so as to cover each one of the particular actions of Allāh, then it will involve the attribution of mutability to Allāh, and this is unanimously held to be absurd.

17. CONCERNING RELIGIOUS DISPUTATION
(*AL-JIDĀL*)

Abū Ja'far says, concerning disputation: "Disputation concerning Allāh is prohibited, because it leads to that which does not benefit Him"; then he quoted aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, as saying: "The speculative theologians (*ahlu 'l-kalām*) will perish, and those who accept the faith without question will be saved".

Abū 'Abdillāh ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that: Disputation is of two kinds; true (i.e., a sincere quest after the truth) and false (i.e., discussion without the object of arriving at the truth or merely to find fault). The true disputation is recommended and desirable; whereas the false one is prohibited, and indulgence in it is abhorred. Allāh, the Almighty, admonishing His Messenger, says: *And argue with them in the best manner* [16:125], which obviously states the legality of arguing with opponents in order to convince them, since the disputation of the Prophet was true. Also Allāh, the

Almighty, addressing the whole Muslim community, says: *And argue not with the People of the Book except by what is best* [29:46]. Thus, He permitted them to argue with the People of the Book with what is best, and prohibited indulgence in false and base disputation with them. He, the Exalted, reporting the speech of the people of Noah, peace be upon him, in their disputation says: *They said, "O Noah! indeed you have disputed with us and prolonged dispute with us"* [11:32]. Thus, if disputation was altogether vain, then Allāh, the Almighty, would never have commanded His Prophet to adopt it, or the prophets before him to use it, and would not have allowed the Muslims to employ it.

As for the false disputation, Allāh, the Almighty, the Belesed, has described it in His saying: *Have you not seen those who dispute (foolishly) about the signs of Allāh, how they distort them?* [40:69]. Thus, He reproached their false disputation concerning the signs of Allāh, either to reject or to vilify them, or to cast suspicion on them. He, the Exalted, also reports the controversy of His friend, Ibrāhīm, with an unbeliever (concerning the existence of Allāh) and says: *Have not you thought of him who disputed with Ibrāhīm about his Lord* [2:258]. Also, reporting his refutation of his opponents, He says: *And that is Our argument, which We gave Ibrāhīm as against his people, We raise up in degrees whom We will* [6:83]. Also, commanding His Prophet (Muḥammad), peace be upon him and his progeny, to argue with his opponents, He says: *Say: "Have you any knowledge, for you to bring forth for us?"* [6:148]. And He, Exalted be His Name, says: *All food was lawful to the Children of Israel* [3:93], and telling His Prophet, says: *Whoever then disputes with thee in this matter after the knowledge that has come to thee* [3:61]. Moreover, the Imāms still continued to debate the religion of Allāh, and the learned amongst their followers in every age used to rely on sound argument and

reasoned proofs in their polemics, in order to establish the truth and refute the false, and the Imāms always praised them for that, and appreciated their efforts highly in this respect.

CHAPTER: al-Kulaynī²², may Allāh have mercy upon him, relates in his book, *al-Kāfi*, which is one of the most admirable books of the Shī‘ah, the discussion Yūnus ibn Ya‘qūb²³ had with Abū ‘Abdillāh, peace be upon him, when the Shāmī²⁴ came to dispute with him. Abū ‘Abdillāh said to him: "O Yūnus! I wish that you had mastered speculative theology (*kalām*)"; thereupon Yūnus replied: "May I be made your ransom! I have heard that you have forbidden people to dispute and that you have said; 'Woe unto those who indulge in dialectics, who say this is a tenable proposition, and this is not, this consistent and this not, and this is conceivable and this is not.'" Then Abū ‘Abdillāh said: "I called woe upon them if they abandoned my teaching and clung to what is opposite to it." Then he asked Ḥumrān ibn A‘yan²⁵, Muḥammad ibn aṭ-Ṭayyār²⁶, Hishām ibn Sālim²⁷ and Qays al-Māṣir²⁸ to hold a debate before him and afterwards Hishām²⁹ (ibn al-Ḥakam) came forward with his thesis (*lit.* apology); then the Imām praised him and congratulated him, and said: "It is you who can dispute with the people." Also, (it has been related) that when he heard of the death of aṭ-Ṭayyār, he said: "May Allāh have mercy upon him and show him splendour and happiness; indeed, he was vigorous in his defence of us, the People of the House." Abu 'l-Ḥasan Mūsā ibn Ja‘far, peace be upon him, said to Muḥammad ibn Ḥakīm³⁰: "Dispute with the people and disclose the truth which you are following, and make clear the error into which they are fallen." Abū ‘Abdillāh (Ja‘far aṣ-Ṣādiq), peace be upon him, said to some of our companions: "Debate with the people with my argument, and if they overcome you by argument, it will be I who am controverted,

not you." Also, he said to Hishām ibn al-Ḥakam, after he had answered his question concerning the Names of the Almighty and their etymology: "Have you comprehended what I have explained to you to such an extent that you would be able to refute our heretical opponents and make their polemics of no effect?" "Yes," answered Hishām. Then the Imām said: "May Allāh help you". He also admonished a group of his followers and said: "Explain to the people the guidance which follow and show them the evils to which they adhere, and initiate (*bāhilhum fī 'Alī*) discussion with them concerning 'Alī." Thus, the report displays that he (Ja'far aṣ-Ṣādiq) encouraged them to dispute with others, and he admonished them to comprehend the methods of disputation, and recommended them to exert themselves in learning it. It has been related also that he (the Imām) once forbade a man to dispute whereas he commanded another to exert himself in acquiring this art: there-upon, some of his followers asked him: "May I be made your ransom! Why have you commanded one of them to master disputation whereas you forbade it to other?" He answered: "Because the first has a keen insight into the matter and is more informed about it than the other."

Thus, the argument mentioned above confirms the fact that for the two *ṣādiqs* (i.e., the two veracious *imāms*, Muḥammad al-Bāqir and his son, Ja'far aṣ-Ṣādiq), prohibition only applies to a particular group of those who are not well-versed in it, and are uninformed in its methods, and whom dialectics confuse; and it (i.e., *kalām*) is commanded for the other group who have perfected it and mastered its methods. As for the prohibition of disputation applied to Allāh, this is, in fact, limited to discussion regarding the drawing of comparison between Him and His creation, and also charging Him with injustice. But as for discussion about Allāh's unity and the denial of His resemblance to His creation and the affirmation of His transcendence

and His glory, there are many traditions and narrations commanding and encouraging it. Some of these evidences I have recorded in my book *al-Arkān fī da'āimi 'd-dīn*, and I also wrote a comprehensive chapter in my book *al-Kāmil fī 'ulūmi 'd-dīn*. Also, on this subject, my book *'Uqūdu 'd-dīn*, contains a section; he who depends on it can dispense with everything else. Then it is self-evident that whosoever denies insight and reasoning bears witness to the weakness of his own opinion, and this displays his deficiencies in seeking knowledge and indicates his fall from the ranks of people of perception.

Also, we should discriminate between *nazar* and *munāzarah*, (i.e., 'insight' and 'disputation'), since it is permissible sometimes to restrain people from doctrinal disputation for the sake of their self-preservation (*at-taqīyah*)³¹, whereas it is not permissible, in any circumstances, to forbid them reasoning and insight; because to restrain them from exercising reason is to pave the way to blind imitation, which is sharply criticized by the unanimous opinion of the learned divines, as also by the plain text of the Qur'ān and Tradition. Allāh, the Almighty, reporting the speech of the unbelievers, and reproaching their blind imitation says: "*Lo! We found our fathers upon a community, and we are following upon their traces.*" [43:22], and also He, the Exalted, says: (And the Warner said:) "*What! even though I bring you a better guidance than you found your fathers following*" [ibid.: 24]. al-Imām aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, says: "He who takes his faith from the mouth of men, men will make him slip (from the truth), but he who takes his faith from the Book and Tradition will never slip though mountains may slip (from their positions)." Also, he says: "Beware of blind imitation, because he who follows others blindly in his religion will be destroyed, since Allāh says: *They have taken as lords their Rabbis and their Monks* [9:31]. By Allāh they have never prayed for them nor fasted for their sake, but they de-

clared lawful what was forbidden, and considered forbidden for them what was lawful, and they followed them blindly in what they enjoyed and what they forbade, and therefore, they worshipped them unconsciously³². And he says: "He who responds to a Warner has worshipped him, then if he was sent by Allāh he has worshipped Allāh, and if he was from Satan, then he has worshipped Satan."

(The logical conclusion of our argument, then is that) if blind imitation was approved and insight was vain, then to imitate one group is no more praiseworthy than to imitate another, and also, whoever erred through imitation would have been excused, and whoever follows an innovator would not have sinned. But this is an assumption which no one (endowed with reason) would assert; thus, it is a self-evident fact that reasoned speculation is right, and sincere disputation is approved, and as for the traditions which Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, related their true interpretation is the one which we have put forward, and the real meaning is not what he has imagined. And Allāh is the truest supporter.

18. THE BELIEF CONCERNING
THE TABLET AND THE PEN
(*AL-LAWḤ WA 'L-QALAM*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Our belief concerning the Tablet and the Pen is that they are two angels."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, adds that the Tablet is the Book of Almighty Allāh in which He has written all that will be till the Day of Resurrection. In the Qur'ān we have: *And We have written in the Psalms after the reminder, verily, my righteous servants shall inherit the earth* [21:105]. Thus, the Tablet means 'the reminder' (*dhikr*). 'Pen' is

the name of that thing by whose instrumentality Allāh has caused the writing on the Tablet. Hence, Allāh has ordained the Tablet to serve as an original record, through which the angels, peace be upon them, acquire the knowledge of what is going to happen concerning what is hidden and what is inspired. When Allāh intended to acquaint the angels with some secret of His, or send a revelation (through them) to one of the prophets, peace be upon them, He commands them to consult the Tablet, and from this they memorize the ordinances which are to be communicated to those to whom they have been sent, and thus they are informed of what they have to do. This interpretation, moreover, was confirmed by the reports related on the authority of the Prophet and the Imāms, peace be upon them all. As for those who maintained that the Tablet and the Pen are two angels, they have indeed deviated from the truth, since angels cannot be called tablets or pens, and since there are no linguistic precedents for an angel or human being called tablet or pen.

19. THE METAPHYSICAL MEANING OF
THE THRONE (*AL-‘ARSH*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Our belief concerning the Throne is that it is the support of the whole creation."³³

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that 'Throne' linguistically means 'kingdom': the poet says:

*When the dominion of Banū Marwān shall have departed,
and been effaced as were Iyād and Ḥimyar,*

which means when the kingdom of Banū Marwān (the Umayyids) is destroyed and they are effaced. Another says: "Do you think that your throne will never vanish or change?", which means, 'Do you think that your kingdom will never vanish or

change?' Allāh, the Almighty, relating the speech of those who describe the kingdom of the Queen of Sheba says: *She has been given of everything, and she possesses a mighty throne* [27:23], which means that she has got a mighty kingdom. Then it follows from this that the Throne of Allāh, the Almighty, is His Kingdom, and seating Himself upon the Throne is equivalent to establishing His sovereignty over His Kingdom. The Arabs often substitute *istiwā'*, that is, seating oneself upon, for *istilā'*, that is, to take possession of. The poet says:

*Bishr has seated himself on Iraq,
without recourse to sword or bloodshed,*

which means that he has dominated Iraq. As for the Throne ('*arsh*) which is carried by angels, it is only a portion of the Kingdom of Allāh, and it is a Throne which Allāh created in the seventh heaven which is carried by angels in adoration and glorification of Allāh; as He has erected a house on the earth (i.e., Ka'bah) and commanded man to make it their goal, visit it and perform the pilgrimage to it and glorify it. It has been handed down in tradition that Allāh Almighty has created a house beneath the Throne and called it al-Baytu 'l-Ma'mūr (i.e., the ever-prosperous house), to which the angels make their pilgrimage every year. Also, He established a house in the fourth heaven and named it aḍ-Ḍurāḥ, to which the angels, in obeisance to Allāh, make their pilgrimage, venerate it, and accomplish the circumambulation of it; and He created al-Baytu 'l-Ḥarām on the earth and placed it beneath aḍ-Ḍurāḥ. It has been related that aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, has said: "If a stone were to be thrown down from the '*arsh* it would fall on the back of al-Baytu 'l-Ma'mūr, and if it were to be thrown from al-Baytu 'l-Ma'mūr, it would fall on the back of al-Baytu 'l-Ḥarām." (Thus it is self-evident) that Allāh, the Exalted, has not created a Throne for Himself to settle in (Allāh is Exalted far above that!), but He created the Throne and appropriated it

to Himself to increase its greatness and glory, and required His angels to make obeisance in bearing it. Also, He established a House on earth which He has not created for Himself, nor that He should dwell therein; Allāh is Exalted far above that – but He created it for His creation and appropriated it to Himself that they should honour and venerate it, and He required them to visit it and make pilgrimage to it as obeisance to Him. As for the description of *‘ilm* (knowledge) as *‘arsh*, it is purely metaphorical. Therefore, it is not justifiable to interpret the meaning of the speech of Allāh, the Almighty: *The All-compassionate sat Himself upon the Throne* [20:5], in the sense that He is the Omniscient. The only rational interpretation is the one we put forward above.

As for the traditions related about the angels as being bearers of the Throne, they are all *aḥād* traditions, and based upon the authority of a single narrator. Hence, the reports cannot be allowed as genuine, nor can they be used as a basis for practice. Yet it is more reasonable to hold a non-committal view about them. Then it is obvious that the only tenable doctrine is that 'Throne' means kingdom, and that the *‘arsh* which is carried by angels is only a portion of the Kingdom (*mulk*), by the bearing of which Allāh ordered angles to make obeisance to Him.

20. CONCERNING SOULS AND SPIRITS

(*AL-ARWĀḤ WA 'N-NUFŪS*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja‘far says: "Our belief concerning souls is that they are spirits, and that they were the first of created things; and that they were created for eternal existence; and that they are strangers in the earth and imprisoned in their bodies."

ash-Shaykh Abū ‘Abdillāh says that Abū Ja‘far's discussion

of souls and spirits is based upon conjecture with no scientific investigation. It would have been wiser had he contented himself with the mere mention of the reports, without involving himself in intricacies of inner meaning, since he is not well-equipped for such a task.

As for 'soul'³⁴, it has different meanings:

1. The essence of a thing (*dhātu 'sh-shay'*);
2. The moving blood (*ad-damu 's-sāil*);
3. The breath which is the wind (*an-nafas*);
4. Desire and passion (*al-hawā*).

Now, the proof of the first meaning is the saying: "This is the very thing itself, that is, its essence and it itself." And the proof of the second meaning is the saying: "Whatsoever is classified as an animal with circulating blood is to be judged thus and thus." And the proof of the third meaning is the saying: "So-and-so has perished, if he ceases to breathe and no air remains in his body to inflate his lungs." And the proof of the fourth meaning is the speech of Allāh; *Surely, the soul of man incites to evil* [12:53], which means passion instigates evil. Soul (*nafs*) might designate the meaning of retribution, the proof of which is the saying of Allāh, the Almighty: *And Allāh biddeth you beware of Him* (*nafsahu*) [3:28], which means 'of His retribution and punishment.'

Rūh (i.e., Spirit), also has several meaning:

1. Life (*ḥayāt*);
2. Qur'ān;
3. A particular one of the angels of the Almighty Allāh (*malak*);
4. Jibrīl.

Now, the proof of the first meaning is the saying: "Everything that is classified as being endowed with spirit is to be judged thus and thus," by which they mean every being that has life, and their saying in respect of him who died, "he gave

up the Ghost", (*lit.* the spirit went out of him), which means his life. And the same is their description of the embryo, "a form not endued with spirit", which means that it lacks life. And the proof of the second meaning is the speech of Allāh: *So We have revealed to thee a spirit of Our command* [42:52], which means here the Qur'ān. And the proof of the third meaning is the speech of the Almighty: *Upon the day when the spirit and the angels stand in ranks* [78:38]. And the proof of the fourth meaning is the saying of the Almighty: *Say, "The Holy Spirit has revealed it"* [16:102], that is, Jibrīl, peace be upon him.

As for the narrations which Abū Ja'far reports, that souls were created two thousand years before the bodies; and that those of them who were acquainted with each other are intimate, and those who were strangers to each other are disparate³⁵, it is, in fact, an *aḥād* tradition and a report unsupported except by one narrator. Nevertheless, it bears an interpretation which differs from that adopted by those who are not acquainted with the fact of the matter. Hence, the sound interpretation is that Allāh, the Exalted, created the angels two thousand years before mankind; then those amongst them who were acquainted with each other before the creation of men are also intimate after the creation of men; whereas those among them who were strangers to each other before, are also strangers after the creation of men. Then, the reality is far from what is maintained by the adherents of transmigration. This specious doctrine has crept into the Hashwites in the ranks of the Shī'ah; who erroneously alleged that our beings which are subject to the commands and prohibitions of Allāh were created in the world of atoms (*'ālamu 'dh-dhar*), and that they were acquainted with each other and endued with the faculties of discernment, comprehension and speech; then Allāh created bodies for them after that and put them together. (Do they not realize) that if this were so, then we would know the state which we occupied before, and that if it

were recalled to us, we would remember it and nothing of it would be hidden from us? Do you not realize that if someone was brought up in a place and settled there for a year, and then turned away from it to a second place, he will never forget what he knows about it; and that if he forgets it through absent-mindedness, it would be easy for him to remember it if he was reminded of it? If this was so, then would it be probable that one of us who was born in Baghdad and settled there for twenty years and then emigrated to another place, would forget all that happened to him at Baghdad even if he were reminded of it in detail? In fact, this is an assumption which no one endowed with reason will make.

It would have been wiser for those who are not well-equipped for such a task to deal with the subject without applying any discussion. What Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, maintained about spirits and souls is unwittingly the actual doctrine of transmigration. So, he committed a fearful crime against himself and others.

As for his opinion regarding the perpetuity of the soul, it is, indeed, a statement to be castigated, since it contradicts the plain meaning of the Qur'ān. Allāh, the Almighty, says: *All that dwells upon the earth is transient, and none endures for ever but the Face of thy Lord, Majestic, Splendid* [55:26-27]. Thus, what he narrated and erroneously assumed is, in fact, the doctrine of the majority of the heretical philosophers who maintain the eternity of the soul and its incorruptibility and perpetuity, and advocate the opinion that the soul abides, and that it is only the body that undergoes degeneration and corruption. The same opinion was held by some of the adherents of transmigration, who claim that souls recur perpetually in different forms and bodies, and that neither are they contingent nor will they corrupt or be annihilated. This is one of the most monstrous claims and far removed from the truth. Comparable to it in

wickedness and error is the charge of the Nāṣibah³⁶ (that)³⁷ these are the real doctrines of all the Shī'ah; on the strength of which they brand them with heresy. Thus, if those who gave authority to such traditions had been aware of the dangers that lay in them, they would never have affirmed them. However, the indiscriminating of our companions, who are incapable of accurate judgment and sound comprehension, often accept the traditions at their face value without checking their authority, and do not distinguish between the true and the absurd without realizing what follows from accepting them or comprehending the real meaning of what they affirm.

What has been affirmed by (genuine) traditions in this respect is that souls after death are of two kinds: those which proceed to reward or punishment; and those which are abolished and therefore known neither reward nor punishment. A tradition has been related from aṣ-Ṣādiq, peace be upon him, which confirms and clarifies this interpretation. He was asked: "What will happen to the spirit of the dead? and where will it abide?" He replied: "The dead are of two categories: (a) Either purely faithfully, or (b) purely wicked; then the spirits of each passes from his body (*lit.* house-*haykal*) to its like, and each is rewarded for its acts till the Day of Resurrection. On the Day of Resurrection Allāh will restore his body and insert his spirit into it, and call him to accept the final judgment for his deeds. The spirit of the faithful will pass from his dead body to a similar form, and abide in a paradise of Allāh, where he will enjoy a perpetual grace till the Day of Resurrection. But the unbeliever's spirit will pass to a form similar to itself and abide in fire and torture till the Day of Resurrection. And that this is the lot of the believer is proved by the speech of Allāh: *It was said: "Enter paradise". He said: "Ah! Would my people had knowledge that my Lord has forgiven me . . ."* [36:26-27]. And that the unbeliever's state is as has been mentioned is proved

by the speech of Allāh: *The Fire, to which they shall be exposed morning and evening, and on the Day when the Hour is come*: "Admit the people of Pharaoh into the most terrible chastisement!" [40:46]³⁸. Thus, He, the Exalted, tells that a believer, after his death as he is admitted to paradise, says: "Ah! Would that my people had knowledge that . . ." Also, He relates that an unbeliever is admitted to chastisement after his death and that he is tortured morning and evening until the Day of Resurrection he will be made to abide in Hell.

As for him who falls into oblivion (*man yulhā 'anhu*), his spirit will be destroyed after the decomposition of his body; thus, he will be aware of nothing till the Day of Resurrection. This is the state of those who are neither purely faithful nor purely wicked. Allāh Almighty speaks of their state and says: *He of them who was fairest in the way will say: "You have terried only a day"* [20:104]. Thus, He demonstrates that a certain group of people on the Day of Resurrection will not remember how long they were in the tombs, so that some will assume that they were in them ten days, and some will suppose a day only. This, of course, cannot be the state of those who have been tortured or blessed until the Day of Resurrection, since he who has enjoyed perpetual pleasure or punishment will not forget the treatment he experienced, not will he be uncertain about it in his life after death. It was related from Abū 'Abdillāh, peace be upon him, that he said: "Only those who are purely faithful or purely unbelievers will be questioned in the grave, whereas the others will fall into oblivion." He said concerning the second coming (*ar-raj'ah*): "Those who will return at the coming of the Qāim (the Holder), peace be upon him, will be only those who are purely faithful or purely unbelievers; as for the others, there will be no return until the Day of Resurrection."

Also, our companions are of different opinions concerning

the question of what is the subject of bliss or punishment. Some are of the opinion that the subject of the eternal bliss or punishment is the spirit to which are addressed the commandments, prohibitions and legal obligations, and they call it a 'substance' (*jawhar*), others say that spirit is the same life which enters a body which is the replica of that of its lifetime on earth. Both suggestions are, in fact, conceivable by reason, but the more likely, to my mind, is the one which defines the spirit as 'the substance which Allāh commands' (*al-jawharu 'l-mukhātab*), and this is what the philosophers name 'the simple' (*al-basīṭ*). It has been related in the traditions that the prophets, peace be upon them, in particular, and the Imāms, peace be upon them, after them will be translated to the heavens both body and spirit, where they will enjoy the Divine bliss in their earthly bodies which they inhabited in the lifetime. But this is a privilege restricted to the Proofs of Allāh (*Hujaj Allāh*) only. Also, it is related from the Holy Prophet, peace be upon him and his progeny, that: "He who prays for me by my tomb I will hear him, and he who prays for me from a remote place, his prayer will reach me." He, peace be upon him and his progeny, said: "He who prays for me once, I will pray for him ten times, and he who prays for me ten times I will pray for him a hundred times, then let your prayers for me be many or few." Thus he, peace be upon him and his progeny, made it clear that after he had left the world he would hear the prayer devoted to him, a fact which implies that he is alive with Allāh, the Almighty. The state of the Imāms (*lit.* the Righteous Guides) is the same as those who hear the prayers of a Muslim close at hand or receive his prayer if far away. This is affirmed by sound narrations related on authority. Allāh Almighty says: *Account not those who were slain in Allāh's way as dead, nay they are alive* [3:169].

It has been related from the Holy Prophet, peace be upon

him and his progeny, that he stood by the pit of Badr and addressed the unbelievers' corpses, who were slain and thrown into a pit: "You were an evil kinsfolk to the Messenger of Allāh (peace be upon him and his progeny), you drove him out of his home and chased him away; then you flocked to fight against him. I have found that what my Lord promised me is true; have you found that what your lord promised you is true?"³⁹ 'Umar exclaimed, "O Messenger of Allāh! What wisdom is there in addressing mouldering corpses?" Thereupon he replied: "Hush, O son of al-Khaṭṭāb! I swear by Allāh that you do not hear me better than they do, and nothing prevents the angels from clothing them with iron, but my turning my face from them like this."

It is related from 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib, the Commander of the Believers, peace be upon him, that after the battle of Baṣrah⁴⁰ terminated, he began to inspect the ranks till he came across the corpse of Ka'b ibn Sūr⁴¹ – *(he was appointed a judge over Baṣrah by 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb and continued to hold office throughout the reigns of 'Umar and 'Uthmān [ibn 'Affān]; when the civil war broke out at Baṣrah, he hung the Qur'ān round his neck and incited all his family to fight the Commander of the Believers and they were all slain)*⁴². The Commander of the Believers asked that the corpse be raised by the help of two men. Then he addressed the body and said: "O Ka'b ibn Sūr! I have found that what my Lord promised me is true. Did you find that what your lord promised you was true?" Then he asked that the body be laid aside and went on a little; then he came across the slain body of Ṭalḥah ibn 'Ubaydillāh, and asked that the body be raised, then addressed it and said: "O Ṭalḥah! I have found that what my Lord promised me is true. Did you find that what your lord promised you was true?" Then he ordered the body to be laid aside. A man exclaimed: "O Commander of the Believers! What was the wisdom of

talking to two slain bodies who were unable to follow you?" Thereupon he said: "By Allāh, O man! They heard me as the people of the pit (*qalīb*) heard the speech of the Messenger of Allāh." Thus, this is one of the narrations which affirms that some of those who die will have their spirits restored to them to enjoy bliss or suffer punishment of the grave; yet this is only an exception and not a general rule which applies to all the dead.

21. WHAT ASH-SHAYKH ABŪ JA'FAR HAS DESCRIBED ABOUT DEATH

Abū Ja'far says: "The Chapter of Death: the Commander of the Believers was asked . . ."

ash-Shaykh Abū 'Abdillāh says: "The chapter is entitled 'Death', yet he deals with something else, whereas it was for him to deal with the reality of death or to entitle the chapter 'On the results of death and how the dead shall fare finally.'"

Death is the opposite of life, nullifying growth and making sensation impossible; also it corrupts and obliterates it. It is the result of the direct act of Allāh, the Almighty; and no one has a hand in it or power over it, save Allāh, the Almighty. Allāh the Almighty, says: *It is He Who gives life and cause to die* [40:68]. Hence, He appropriates animation and killing to Himself. Also He, the Exalted, says: *Who created death and life, that He might try you; which of you is fairest in works* [67:2]. Life is that which has growth and sensation, and endows the one in possession of it with capacity and knowledge, whereas death is that in conjunction with which growth and sensation are impossible and which deprives the dead of both ability and knowledge.

Allāh, the Almighty, deals death to His creatures in order to transfer them from the abode of action and trial to that of reward and retribution. Also, He makes none of them die save him for whom He knows that death is better than his continued life,

and preserves life only in those for whom He knows that life is better than death. However, what He deals with His creatures is, in truth, intrinsically good and most beneficial for them. He might put to trial most of His creatures by the severe pangs of death, or He might exempt them from that trial. Moreover, these pangs which precede death might stand as a punishment to those afflicted by them, or it might be that they serve to purify him or others (who are afflicted by them), yet a great advantage might follow from them and a full compensation. Also, not everyone who suffers severe pangs, before the passing of his soul, suffers them as punishment, nor is everyone who relinquishes his life easily favoured and rewarded thereby; also it has been related that the pangs which precede death serve as atonement for believers for their sins, or as a punishment for the unbelievers; also the ease which precedes death is either to seduce the infidels or to serve as reward for the faithful. Altogether, this is a question whose solution has been concealed to human intelligence; and Allāh, the Almighty, has disclosed nothing of it to His creatures, in order to stir them to discriminate between the state of trial and that of punishment, and the state of reward and that of seduction, or in order to increase the severity of the trial to its utmost extent, to accomplish the purpose divinely ordained for creation.

As for what Abū Ja‘far mentioned concerning the state which the dead occupy after their death – indeed detailed reports have been handed down concerning it – and what he mentioned was only some of it, which he erroneously listed in this chapter which is of different content. In any event, death is one of the greatest joys which confronts the faithful, since it marks the beginning of his way to the abode of favour, and by the means of which he achieves the reward of the good deeds of his lifetime; whereas, for the infidel it is the first calamity he is confronted with, and the beginning of his way to punishment,

since Allāh, the Al-mighty, postponed the retribution of his deeds until after his death by the means of which he is transformed from the abode of obligation to that of retribution. Indeed, the position of the believer, after his death, is more excellent than that before it, whereas the position of the infidel after his death is worse than that before it. This is so, because the believer is going to achieve his reward and the unbeliever is going to receive his punishment.

It has been related from the Family (*ā'l*) of Muḥammad, peace be upon him and his progeny, that "The world is the prison of the believer, the tomb his house, and paradise his abiding place, whereas the world is the paradise of the infidel, the tomb his prison, and hell his abiding place." It is also related from them, peace be upon them, that they said: "Eternal bliss is after death and eternal affliction is after death." Yet we should be content with what the Qur'ān states concerning the final outcome, irrespective of what the narrations say; and what is approved by reason, irrespective of the traditions, since Allāh, the Almighty, has plainly stated the reward of the righteous and He has also mentioned the reward of the evil-doers, and enlarged on it; then what He, the Exalted, stated is sufficient without need of anything else.

22. THE BELIEF CONCERNING THE QUESTIONING IN THE GRAVE

*Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning the questioning in the grave is that it is true."⁴³

Abū 'Abdillāh ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, adds that what is mentioned by Abū Ja'far does not tell all that should be told about the questioning and its purpose; what should be mentioned in this respect is what I am going to establish by the will of Allāh, the Exalted.

The genuine narrations which have been handed down from

the Holy Prophet, peace be upon him and his progeny, are to the effect that the angels will descend to men in the grave and question them regarding their faith. It is noteworthy that the different reports have a common tone. One of these runs thus: After death two angels of Allāh, the Sublime, named Munkar and Nakīr, come to the dead man and question him regarding his Lord, his Prophet his faith and his Imām; if he answers according to the truth, they deliver him to the angels of bliss, and if he falters, they deliver him to the angels of punishment. Yet, some other reports name the two angels – who come to the unbeliever – Munkar and Nakīr, whereas those who come to the believer are called Mubashshir and Bashīr. It has been related that the two angels sent to the unbeliever are named thus, because he denies the truth, rejects and scorns what they bring him. The two angels sent to the believer are named Mubashshir and Bashīr because they bring him glad tidings and eternal reward from the Almighty Allāh. Moreover, these two names are not their personal names, but designate their acts. These, however, are reports close to each other in content, and of which the meaning is easily conceivable, yet Allāh, the Exalted, knows best the truth of it.

We have also mentioned above that the only people whom the two angels will question are those who are purely faithful or completely infidels, whereas all others will fall into oblivion. This is confirmed by the traditions handed down on this matter, and this is why we mentioned the above statement about it.

CHAPTER: (In point of fact) the two angels will question only him who is alive and him who can understand the content of the question, and is capable of conceiving its meaning. This is clear evidence that Allāh, the Almighty, will quicken the dead servant for questioning, and thereafter his life may be per-petuated for eternal grace, if he deserves grace, or for ever-lasting punish-

ment, if he deserves this; let us seek refuge in Allāh from His wrath, and let us beg His help to perform what He pleases.

The purpose for which the two angels descend and question the servant is that Allāh, the Almighty, will entrust the servant, after his death, to the angels of grace or punishment; they cannot discern what the servant is except as Allāh has instructed them. And of the two angels who come to the servant, one is from the angels of grace and the other is from the angels of punishment. When they descend to him, they will discern his state by questioning him. Thus, if his answers are satisfactory and deserving of Divine Grace, charge of him will devolve upon the angel of grace, whereas the angel of punishment will abandon him. And if he shows signs of deserving punishment, then he will be in the care of the angel of torment, whereas the angel of grace will abandon him. Also, it has been related that the angels appointed for reward and punishment are other than those who are appointed for questioning, and that the two angels of grace and punishment will be informed of what the servant deserves by the two angels of questioning, who have the task of questioning the servant and ascertaining what he deserves; they relate this to the angels of retribution and then they ascend to their post in heaven. These narrations are all permissible, yet we do not prefer one to another; since they are of similar import, and since our procedure, in such cases, is to be cautious and non-committal.

CHAPTER: The purpose for which Allāh, the Sublime, entrusts these tasks to the angels of questioning and the angels of punishment and grace, is that they worship Him through this, as is the case with the angels who show their worship through keeping record of the acts of mankind, inscribing, abrogating them and lifting the record (to Allāh), and as is the case with those who serve Allāh by preserving humanity from harm, or those who

are commissioned to destroy the nations, or those who bear the Throne, or those who circumambulate the Ever-prosperous House (al-Baytu 'l-Ma'mūr), or those who glorify Him or those who are charged with asking forgiveness for the faithful, or those who are employed in showing grace to the people of Paradise, or those who are assigned to torture the people of Hell. Thus, all worship Him to gain His grace and they do not serve Him in vain⁴⁴; as men and *jinn* do not serve Him for play. But all worship Him, looking to His reward, or that He should make Himself known to them, or to show their thanks to Him, Who favoured them with His favours. For Allāh is able to punish him who deserves it, or to shower His grace upon him who merits it without mediators, for the reasons given above, and for the Divine wisdom as has been shown.

The position of the two angels who will come and question the dead after their departure from this world is a theme attested by textual proof (*as-sam'*), whereas the question of Allāh quickening the dead at the time of questioning is a theme proved by reason, since questioning the dead or inquiring of an inanimate body is inconceivable, because speech is only valid with a rational being, capable of understanding speech, and approving it, and thereby bearing the responsibility for what was within his power. Yet it has been related that to everyone subject to questioning, life will be restored after death, that he may be capable of understanding what is addressed to him; thus the reports which are related confirm what has been proved by reason. And even if we lack traditions, then the proof of reason is, indeed, sufficient in this respect.

23. WHAT ASH-SHAYKH ABŪ JA'FAR HAS MENTIONED ABOUT DIVINE JUSTICE

Abū Ja'far says: "The chapter concerning Divine Justice . . ."

Abū ‘Abdillāh ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd adds: "Justice is the recompense of an action as it deserves, and injustice is the prevention of what is due." Allāh, the Most High, is the Generous, the Ever-giving, the All-gracious, the Compassionate, Who assures the reward for acts and fair indemnity for undeserved sufferings. Moreover, He has promised to bestow His grace in abundance and says: *For those who do good the reward is most fair and abundant* [10:26]. Thus, He states that the righteous will be requited with the reward they deserve and with His bounty. And He says: *He to whom a good deed is accredited shall be recompensed ten-fold*; which states that he would be endowed with ten-fold of what he deserves, and – *He to whom an evil-deed is accredited shall only be recompensed as it deserves and they shall not be wronged* [6:160] – which implies that he shall only be recompensed with the minimum of what he justly deserves. Also, He assures men of His pardon and promises to them His forgiveness, and He, the Exalted, says: *Thy Lord is forgiving to men, for all their evil-doing* [13:6]. And He, the Exalted, says: *Surely, Allāh will not forgive that a partner should be ascribed to Him; less than that He forgives to whomsoever He will* [4:48]. And He, the Exalted says: *In the bounty of Allāh and His mercy, in that let them rejoice* [10:58]. Yet, what right the servant might possess is that to which Allāh, the Sublime, has entitled him and is what is dictated by His generosity and bounteousness. Since, if He requited him in accordance with justice, he could never lay claim by right to all that with which Allāh has endowed him. Since, also, Allāh first showed His creation His favours, thereby obliging them to show their gratitude to Him, yet no one of His creatures is able to make an adequate return for the favours which He has showered upon him through his good acts, nor can anyone give thanks to Him without falling short of the gratitude worthy of the favour. Moreover, the People of the Qiblah (i.e., the Muslim

community as a whole) unanimously agreed to stigmatize as an evil-doer him who claims that he has fulfilled all the obligations Allāh has imposed upon him, and that he has given good measure in return for the favours with which Allāh has endowed him. Also, they agreed unanimously that, however, thankful they were to Allāh, they fell short of a worthy gratitude; and that even if their terms should be prolonged to the end of time, they would never fulfil their debts perfectly to Allāh, the Exalted.

Thus, the foregoing argument indicates that what He entitled them to claim as a deserved right is so, only because of His generosity, bounty and graciousness. In fact, rationally, there is a difference between a thankful worker and one who does not work, and since the precedence and superiority of the worker are recognized over the idle man, then it must rationally be inferred that his praise is, in fact, considered due to him, and it must further be inferred that he is privileged above the idle man, for it would be only just that Allāh should requite him with what is his due according to reason. Above all, Allāh, the Almighty, commands justice and forbids wrong, and says: *Surely, Allāh commands justice and the doing of good* [16:90].

24. CHAPTER ON *AL-A'RĀF*

Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning *al-A'rāf* is that it is a dividing wall . . ."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd comments that: "It has been said that *al-A'rāf* is a mountain midway between Paradise and the Fire. Also, that it is a dividing wall between Paradise and Hell. It is generally considered a (particular) place belonging neither to Paradise nor to Hell."

These interpretations are confirmed by traditions, which

furthermore, state that on the Day of Resurrection there will be found upon it the Messenger of Allāh, the Commander of the Believers and the Imāms from his progeny – may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his family. Those are they whom Allāh, the Exalted, means by His saying: *And on the ramparts are men knowing each by their mark, who shall call to the inhabitants of Paradise: "Peace be upon you! They have not entered it, for all their eagerness"* [7:46], that is, because Allāh, the Almighty, will enable them to discriminate between the inhabitants of Paradise and those of Hell by signs resembling marks. This He illustrates further in His saying: "They know each by their mark". And also: *The sinners shall be known by their marks* [55:41]. He the Almighty, also says: *Surely in that are signs for such as mark; surely they are on a way still un-effaced* [15:75-76]. Thus, He tells that amongst His creatures there is a group which scrutinizes men and knows them by the marks they bear. It has been related from the Commander of the Believers, peace be upon him, that he has said in some of his narrations, "I am the holder of the baton and the clear-sighted", which means that he knows the state of him whom he scrutinizes carefully. It has been related from Abū Ja'far Muḥammad al-Bāqir, peace be upon him, that he was questioned on the meaning of the speech of Allāh: "Surely in that are signs for such as mark"⁴⁵, he said, "That it refers to us, the People of the House (i.e., the Imāms, peace be upon them)." It is also mentioned in the traditions that Allāh, the Almighty will place therein, that is, *al-A'rāf*, a group of men who have failed to merit Paradise by their good acts and have not deserved punishment, yet they do not merit an eternal abode in Hell; among these are they who wait for the decision of Allāh and entertain hope of intercession; they will abide there till they are permitted to enter Paradise through the intercession of the Prophet, peace be upon him and his progeny, and the Commander of the Believers and

the Imāms, peace be upon them. It has been mentioned also that it is an abode of those who were not subject to any religious obligation in their lifetime, thus they do not deserve either Paradise or Hell; therefore Allāh will place them therein and recompense them with a certain grace which is far below that of those who merited it by the virtue of their acts. Hence, all that is mentioned above (concerning *al-A'rāf*) is tenable by reason and confirmed by traditions, and yet Allāh best knows the truth. What is generally accepted regarding *al-A'rāf* is that it is a place midway between Paradise and Hell; there will stand those whom we call the Proofs of Allāh to His creatures (*Hujaj Allāh*, that is, the Prophet and the Imāms); there, also, will be those whose final judgment has been deferred. Beyond this Allāh knows best what will be.

25. THE BELIEF CONCERNING THE BRIDGE (*AŞ-ŞIRĀṬ*)

*ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning *aş-Şirāṭ* is that it is true, and that it is a bridge"*⁴⁶.

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: "*aş-Şirāṭ*, linguistically means 'way' (*aṭ-ṭarīq*), hence religion is called 'the way', since it is the way to the right (path). That is why accepting the mastership of the Commander of the Believers and the Imāms of his progeny is called 'a way'. Similar to this is the saying of the Commander of the Believers, "I am the straight path of Allāh, and the most firm cord which is unbreakable", by which he meant that knowing him and adhering to him is the way to Allāh, the Exalted. It has been related that the way to Paradise on the Day of Resurrection is like a bridge over which people pass, and that is the bridge on the right side of which the Messenger of Allāh, peace be upon him and his progeny, will stand and the Commander of the Believers, peace be upon him,

on the left side, where they will receive the call from Allāh, the Sublime, "*Cast, you twain, into Hell every froward unbeliever*" [50:24]. It is also related that no one will be permitted to cross the bridge except those who hold with them a writ of immunity from the Fire (*barā'ah*), given by 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib, peace be upon him. It is also related that the bridge is finer than a hair and sharper than a sword to the unbeliever – that is to say, the foot of the unbeliever will never stand firmly on it on the Day of Resurrection because of the dread and fear of that Day with which they will be confronted. Then they will walk on it as one who walks on a thing finer than a hair and sharper than a sword. Yet this is only an expression to illustrate the dread which afflicts the unbeliever when he crosses the bridge. It is a way either to Paradise or to Hell, and from which the servant may look out on Paradise or see the terrors of Hell.

aṣ-Ṣirāṭ might also signify a tortuous path, and this is why Allāh, the Almighty, says: "*And this, My path, is straight*" [6: 153]. Thus He distinguished His path which is the true religion, and which He ordered to be followed from those which lead astray. Also, the Almighty, in commanding His servants to pray and recite the Qur'ān says: *Guide us in the straight path* [1:5], which indicates that the other paths are not straight and that the path of the Almighty Allāh is His religion, whereas the path of Satan is the path of rebelliousness. Thus, *aṣ-Ṣirāṭ*, as we demonstrated above, originally means path, as *aṣ-Ṣirāṭ* of the Day of Resurrection is the path which has to be followed either to Paradise or to Hell.

26. CHAPTER CONCERNING *AL-'AQABĀT*

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: "Our belief concerning this is that verily these mountain-passes (*al-'aqabāt*) have each a specific name; some are called

farḍ (compulsory duty) others, *amr* (command); yet others, *nahy* (prohibition)."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: "*al-'Aqabāt* designates the obligatory acts, the inquiry into their performance and the confrontation with them on the Day of Judgment. It does not mean mountains which exist on earth and which have to be ascended. They are acts which are likened to *al-'aqabāt* for the reason that, just as a man finds it hard and exhausting to climb a mountainpass (*'aqabah*), so also does he find the efforts which he makes to avoid shortcomings in his obedience to Allāh, the Sublime. Allāh, the Almighty, says: *Yet he has not assaulted the steep, and what shall teach what is the steep, the freeing of a slave* [90:11-13]. Thus He, the Exalted, names the acts which He has made compulsory for His servants '*aqabāt*', likening them to steep roads and mountains because of the hardship a man suffers in order to perform them as if he were ascending a mountain road, difficult of access. The Commander of the Believers, peace be upon him, says: "In front of you lie difficult passes and dreadful stages through which one must pass and halt there; then you would either, by the grace of Allāh, be saved, or you would suffer irrevocable destruction". He meant by *'aqabah*, to get rid of responsibilities and obligations imposed upon men (by Allāh). Hence, this is far from what the Hashwiyyah maintain, that on the last day there will be mountains and steep roads which men must cross, either walking or riding; and this is nonsense if compared with the Divine purpose of retribution. Also, it is needless to create difficult passes to designate by each or poor-tax, or fasting, or pilgrimage or other obligatory acts which are to be ascended by men, so that if he falls short in his obedience to Allāh, this would prevent him from ascending them. The purpose of the Day of Judgment is to inquire into men's acts, and retribution for them either by reward or punishment, a fact which does not

require the naming of passes or creating mountains to be crossed with ease or difficulty. Moreover, no tradition has been handed down which supports such an allegation, or from which we can derive such an interpretation. Then as we have no support in traditions in this respect, the sound interpretation is the one put forward above.

27. THE BELIEF CONCERNING
RECKONING AND BALANCE
(*AL-HISĀB WA 'L-MĪZĀN*)

*ash-Shaykh Abū Ja‘far says:^{*47}, "Our belief concerning Reckoning is that it is true".

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, adds that: Reckoning is the balancing of actions and the requital, the examination of the servant on what he has done inadvertently, and recompensing him for his evil actions and praising him for good actions; and treating him in accordance with what he deserves. It cannot mean what the Orthodox (*lit.* the common folk – *al-‘Āmmah*) maintain; that it is the setting of good actions against the base ones, and striking a balance between them in accordance with what reward or punishment each deserves, since *taḥāhuṭ*⁴⁸ (the mutual cancellation of good and evil deeds) is absurd; and the doctrine of the Mu‘tazilah in this respect is invalid and unconfirmed. Also, the Ḥashwiyyah claim as to its meaning are irrational.

al-Mawāzīn is the equating, "*ta‘dīl*", of the reward to its due place, and to ensure that each one receives what is his due. Then it is self-evident that the meaning of this is far from what the Ḥashwiyyah maintain, that on the Day of Resurrection there will be scales like the scales of this world, each with two pans into which works will be put, since actions are accidents, and accidents cannot be measured exactly, but can only be

described as heavy or light, metaphorically, which means that the heavy is what is abundant and deserves a high reward, and the light is what is of little worth and does not deserve a good reward.

The traditions which relate that the Commander of the Believers and the Imāms of his progeny, peace be upon them, are the scales, signify that they are the ones who will evaluate (men's) works and their due, and that they are the ones who will give judgment on them in justice and right. We say, "so-and-so for me is the worth (*fī mīzān*) of so-and-so", which means that he is equal to him. And we say, "the speech of so-and-so is (*awzan*) than the speech of so-and-so", which means it is more excellent and held in greater esteem. What Allāh, the Sublime, says on Reckoning and the fear resulting from it, is that it is a man's confrontation with, and questioning on, his deeds, since he who is confronted with what he has done cannot escape from the consequences, and he whom Allāh, the Sublime, pardons will attain salvation. *Then he, whose scales are heavy* (with the great worth of his reward), *they are the prosperous, and he whose scales are light*, (because his acts of obedience were few), *they have lost their souls, abiding for ever in Hell* [23: 102-3].

Moreover, the Qur'ān has been revealed in the language of the Arabs, whether in the real sense of the words, or in their metaphorical meaning, and has not been revealed in the vulgar tongue (and cannot be interpreted) according to the limited perception of vain minds.

28. CONCERNING PARADISE AND HELL
(*AL -JANNAH WA 'N-NĀR*)

*Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning Paradise is that it is the abode of eternity (*dāru 'l-baqā'*)*⁴⁹.

ash-Shaykh al-Mufid, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments: Paradise is the abode of grace where weariness shall not touch its inmates, nor fatigue distress them; Allāh, the Exalted, set it up for those who knew and worshipped Him. Its grace is perpetual and shall never cease. The dwellers therein are of different ranks. Those who were perfectly devoted to Allāh, the Almighty, they will enter immune from the punishment of Allāh. And those who mingled good actions with base ones, and put off repentance continually, death shall cut them off before they achieve it, and then certain punishment will overtake them in their lifetime or after, or in this life alone; then they will dwell in Paradise after being forgiven by Allāh or punished. And among them there would be those who will receive the grace of Allāh by no previous action of their own in [this] world, these are the immortal youths (*al-wildānu 'l-mukhalladūn*) whom Allāh, the Sublime, appointed for the service of the dwellers in Paradise to requite them for their good actions. They suffer neither hardship nor trouble in their service, since they are designed by nature to perform the demands of the believers. The reward of the dwellers in Paradise is to enjoy the delights of eating, drinking, pleasant scenes and marriage, and every pleasure of the senses to which their natural inclination leads them with which they will achieve their desires. Hence, in Paradise there is no human being who enjoys pleasure without eating, drinking, or gratification of the senses. The claim of him who alleges that in Paradise there are some who find pleasure in exalting and glorifying Allāh without enjoying food or drink is, in fact, foreign to the religion of Islam. It is an imitation of the Christians who allege that those who obey God in their lifetime will be transformed into angels who neither drink, nor eat, nor are married. Allāh, the Exalted, declares this assertion a lie in His Book, when He promises to those who do good, eating,

drinking, and marriage, and the Almighty says: *Its produce is eternal, and its shade. That is, the requital of the godfearing* [13:35]. And He, the Almighty, says: *Therein are rivers of sweet water* [47:15]. And He, the Exalted, says: *Houris, cloistered in pavilions* [55:72]. And He, the Sublime, says: *And wide-eyed houris* [56:22]. And He, the Exalted, says: *And We shall espouse them to wide-eyed houris* [44:54]. And He, the Almighty, says: *And with the maidens of equal age restraining their glances* [38:52]. And He, the Sublime, says: *Verily, the inmates of Paradise shall on that day be busy rejoicing, they and their spouses* [36:55-56]. And He, the Exalted says: . . . *that they shall be given in perfect semblance; and there for them shall be spouses purified; therein they shall dwell forever* [2:25].

How, then, do some hold it permissible to maintain that in Paradise there is a group of human beings who do not eat or drink, and that they take delight in what is an affliction to (the rest of) humanity, whereas the Book of Allāh disclaims this; and the consensus of opinion is against it, whether it is in imitation of some whom it is not permissible to imitate, or relying on spurious traditions.

As for Hell, it is the abode of those who have not known Allāh, the Exalted. Some of those who acknowledge Allāh may enter Hell because of their disobedience; but they will not abide therein eternally; rather, they will come out and enter perpetual grace, since none but the polytheists will reside therein forever. Allāh, the Sublime, says: *Now I have warned you of a Fire that flames, to which none but the most wretched shall be exposed* [92:14-15]. Here, 'shall be exposed to the Fire' means 'the eternal abiding therein'. Allāh, the Sublime says: *Surely those who disbelieve Our signs, We shall certainly expose them to a Fire* [4:56]. And He, the Almighty, says: *Verily, those who disbelieve even if they had what is in the earth, all of it with it, that they might ransom themselves with it*

from the punishment of the Day of Resurrection, it shall not be accepted from them . . . [5:36]. Thus, every verse which implies the meaning of eternal abiding in the Fire, concerns only the polytheists rather than those who acknowledge the existence of Allāh, the Almighty, according to the proofs of reason, and as supported (by the use) of the Book and the accepted traditions and the consensus of opinion, and the precedent current before the innovators amongst the followers of the doctrine of "threat"⁵⁰.

29. THE POINT OF UNBELIEF
(*HADDU 'T-TAKFĪR*)⁵¹

Thus, it is not possible to maintain that he who is an unbeliever can know Allāh, or that he who believes in Him can be ignorant of Him. According to our principles, he who is an infidel is also ignorant of Allāh. Consequently, he who, though he be among the community of Islam, deviates from the principles of the faith, is, in our opinion, ignorant of Allāh, the Exalted, even if he professes the Unity of Allāh. As is also the case with those who do not believe in the Messenger of Allāh, even though there are amongst them some who profess the Unity of Allāh and behave in a fashion which might delude the weak into (believing) that they know Allāh. Allāh, the Almighty, says: *And whosoever believes in his Lord, he shall fear neither loss nor wrong [72:13]*; thereby He excludes the believers from the decrees binding on the infidels. Also, Allāh, the Almighty, says: *But no, by thy Lord! They will not believe till they make thee the judge regarding the disagreement between them [4:65]*. Thus, He denied faith to those who believe not in the Messenger of Allāh and because of their reservation in this matter, their knowledge of Allāh cannot be accepted. He, the Almighty, the Exalted, says: *Fight those who*

believe not in Allah and the Last Day . . . and they are in a state of subjection [9:29], whereby He denied faith to the Jews and the Christians, and relegated them to unbelief and error.

30. CONCERNING THE DESCENT OF REVELATION
(NUZŪLU 'L-WAĦY)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says *on the descent of revelation that*⁵², "Our belief concerning this is that there is a Tablet between the two eyes of Isrāfīl . . ."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says that Abū Ja'far depends in this matter on a *shādhdh* tradition which is not generally accepted. Moreover, he has mentioned previously that the Tablet is an angel of Allāh, the Almighty.

Wahy, originally, means a hushed speech; it might also bear the meaning of any speech which is intended to be understood by the hearer privately and by no one else, and directed at him and to no one else. But if it is applied to Allāh, the Sublime, then according to the usage of Islam and the law of the Prophet, peace be upon him and his progeny, it signifies what has been reserved for the messengers, peace be upon them, alone and is not given to others. Allāh, the Sublime, says: *So We revealed to Moses's mother, "Suckle him . . ."* [28:7]; thereupon Muslims unanimously agreed that the revelation in this case was a vision, or a speech addressed to and heard by Moses's mother alone, when she was asleep. And Allāh, the Sublime, says: *And thy Lord revealed unto the bees* [16:68], which means a secret illumination, since it is restricted to the bees, and the bees are acquainted with it without a speech proclaimed loudly by the speaker in order to be heard by others. And Allāh, the Sublime, says: *Surely the devils inspire their friends* [6:121], which means that they whisper to their friends through what

they introduce into their inmost hearing, by which means they inform privately without telling it abroad. And He, the Exalted, says: *He came forth unto his people from the sanctuary and inspired them* [19:11], which means that he commanded them without the utterance of words. He likened this (i.e., his signal to them) to revelation in being hidden from others and secret from them. Allāh, the Exalted, (might give illumination to many of His creatures in their dreams, the interpretation of which may be proved sound and their truth established, yet they cannot be specified as revelation, since the *sharī'ah* has been settled once and for all. Also, it is not permissible to say of those who are inspired with the knowledge of something that Allāh has revealed it to them. Also (according to our tenets) Allāh, the Almighty might inspire the proofs after His Prophet, peace be upon him and his progeny, with speech which descends to them, revealing what will be, but still it cannot be called revelation for the reasons given above, which confirms that the general consensus of the learned Muslims is that no revelation can descend on anyone after our Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his progeny and grant him salvation. Therefore, none of these things which we mentioned can be called a revelation to anyone, since it is for Allāh, the Exalted, to permit the use of the term at one time and forbid it at another, sometimes to prohibit it and to allow it to others. As for its significance, it never departs from its true meaning as given above.

CHAPTER: As for the revelation from Allāh, the Most High, to His Messenger, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, it was conveyed to him, sometimes without an intermediary, and sometimes from the lips of the angels who transmitted it to him. What Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, has mentioned concerning the Tablet and the Pen, and what he confirmed on this matter, has only one tradition supporting it. Yet we do not

rely on it, nor do we affirm its authenticity, and we testify only to that which we know, since the tradition is not *mutawātir*, nor is it confirmed by the consensus of opinion, nor does the Qur'ān proclaim it, nor is it established by a Proof (an imām) of Allāh, the Almighty, that it would be considered tenable. And the best course is to reserve judgment on it, and to allow it without affirming it or declaring it sound definitively, and keep it within the bounds of possibility. As for the certainty with which Abū Ja'far affirms it and his belief in it, this is nothing but blind imitation, and far be it from us to imitate (anything) blindly.

31. ON THE REVELATION OF THE QUR'ĀN
(*NUZŪLU 'L-QUR'ĀN*)

ash-Shaykh Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says that: "The Qur'ān was sent down in one lot, in the month of Ramaḍān, on the Night of Power (*laylatu 'l-qadr*), (first) to al-Baytu 'l-Ma'mūr (the ever-prosperous house). And then it was revealed in the space of twenty years . . ."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says that: What Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, maintains in this respect, originally derives from an *aḥād* tradition which is not a fit basis, either for doctrine or for practice. Moreover, the revelation of the Qur'ān piecemeal, as need arose, bears witness to the contrary, since it includes the description of what had happened and the narration of what was past, and this indeed indicates that it was only revealed as need arose. Do you not realize the speech of Allāh, the Exalted: *And for their saying, "Our hearts are uncircumcised", nay, but Allāh sealed them for their unbelief* [4:155]. And His saying: *They say, "Had the All-merciful so willed, we would not have served them", They have no knowledge of that* [43:20]. This involves information about the past which requires that the narrator should not precede it, since this involves giving

information about something past, which has not yet happened – indeed, is still in the future. There are many such instances in the Qur'ān, one of which is the narration of *zihār*⁵³, and the reason for it; when a woman complained to the Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, about the judgment on it, Allāh, the Exalted, revealed: *Allāh has heard the words of her that disputes with thee* [58:1]. Now this is an incident that happened at Medina; then how can we say that Allāh, the Exalted, revealed it at Mecca before the emigration took place and thus state that it happened when in fact it had not.

Moreover, if we look at the accounts reported in the Qur'ān, then we would come across many instances similar to that which we have mentioned, and which will take us beyond the scope of our discussion. Thus, what we have mentioned is sufficient for men of perception. In fact, the tradition resembles the doctrine of the anthropomorphists, who claim that the Qur'ān is the eternal words of Allāh, the Praised, the Exalted, and that it relates the future as if it were the past; their teaching has been refuted by the adherents of Allāh's Unity (by the assertors of the Unity of Allāh – *ahlu 't-tawhīd*) in the manner demonstrated above.

The tradition that the Qur'ān was revealed 'all of a piece' on the Night of Power, may bear another interpretation, that 'a piece of it' (*jumlatur minhu*) was revealed on the Night of Power, then the rest of what has been revealed until the death of the Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, followed this. But that it has been revealed as a whole and altogether on the Night of Power is a notion which is far from what the plain meaning of the Qur'ān teaches, and is in contrast to the *mutawātir* traditions and the consensus of the learned divines, irrespective of their different inferences.

CHAPTER: As for the meaning of the speech of the Almighty Allah: *And hasten not* (O Muḥammad) *with the Qur'ān ere its*

revelation is accomplished unto thee [20:114], there are two proper interpretations for it other than that mentioned by Abū Ja'far, which he derived from a *shādhah* tradition. The first is that Allāh, the Exalted, forbids him (Muḥammad) to be hasty in the interpretation of what has been revealed to him in accordance with the rules of the language of the Arabs, though it may be permissible, and the second is that the Prophet, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, used to follow Jibrīl in his recitation, word by word, hence, Allāh, the Exalted, commanded him not to do so, but to hearken to what was brought to him by Jibrīl, or to what was sent down to him without intermediary till it came to an end: and when the revelation was completed, to recite it and give it utterance and declare it.

Thus, the interpretation put forward by him who relies on the tradition (mentioned above) is far from the truth, since there is no reason to maintain that Allāh, the Exalted, has commanded him not to be hasty with the Qur'an which is in the fourth heaven until it is revealed to him wholly, since he possesses no knowledge about what there is in the fourth heaven before it is revealed to him. It is also meaningless to restrain him from what is beyond his powers, except if one claims that he possessed full knowledge of the Qur'an which is in the fourth heaven; then, by assuming this, his argument and position collapses, because he has maintained that the Qur'an is originally in the (fourth) heaven; and since what is in the breast of the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, and in its preservation on the earth, then it is absurd that it should be confined to the heavens. Moreover, if what is in the preservation (i.e., memory) of the Messenger of Allāh, may Allāh bless him and his progeny, is described as being in the fourth heaven, then what is in the preservation of others should be described the same way; then it cannot be ascribed to the fourth heaven, nor, still less, to the first, in preference to the

fourth. Thus, he who considers what we have said would realize that the interpretation of the verse by him who relied on the tradition is far from the truth.

32. THE BELIEF ON IMPECCABILITY (*AL-‘IṢMAH*)

*Abū Ja‘far says: "Chapter on the belief on *al-‘iṣmah* (impeccability)"*⁵⁴.

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: The impeccability granted by Allāh to His Proofs is the succour and grace by which the Proofs keep themselves free from sin and error in the religion of Allāh, the Exalted. The impeccability, in fact, is a grace granted by Allāh, the Exalted, to him whom He knows will hold fast by it. Hence, freedom from sin is the action of him who maintains himself free from sin, and this freedom from sin does not involve being prevented from committing a base act, nor does it oblige or compel him who possesses it to act righteously; rather it is a thing which Allāh, the Exalted, knows that if He bestows it upon one of His slaves, no trace of fault will be found in him. Yet, this privilege is not bestowed freely upon all men, rather it is restricted to those who are the chosen and the best. Allāh, the Exalted, says: *But as for those unto whom, already, the reward most fair has gone forth from Us, they shall be kept far from it* (Hell) [21:101]. And He, the Praised, says: *Certainly We chose them, out of a knowledge, above all beings* [44:32]. And He, the Exalted, says: *And in Our sight they are, indeed, of the chosen, the excellent* [38:47].

(Also, we are of the opinion) that the Prophet and the Imāms after them are free from sin during their prophethood and imāmate, whether major or minor. It is arguable that they might omit a supererogatory act, yet without intending to commit a disobedience thereby. It is inconceivable that they should omit

an obligatory act either before or after their imāmate.

CHAPTER: And whenever perfection is attributed to them in their different states of life, it implies their perfection in all states in which they were Proofs of Allāh to His creatures.

It has been related that the Messenger of Allāh, may the blessing and peace of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, and the Imāms from his progeny after him were entitled to be the Proofs of Allāh, the Exalted, from the time when they achieved years of discretion until Allāh took them. Yet, even before they attained the age of religious responsibility, they were not subject to defects and ignorance since they were of the pattern of Jesus and John, peace be upon them, in that they were endowed with perfection though they were still children, and had not attained the age of discretion. And, in fact, this is a tenable proposition, one which admits of rational proof. Besides that, there is no justification for declaring false the traditions in this respect: at any rate it is necessary only to maintain their perfection, peace be on them, in knowledge and impeccability during their prophet-hood and imāmate, and to hold a non-committal attitude regarding their careers before that, whether it was a state of prophet-hood and imāmate or not, and to affirm that impeccability is inevitable from the time Allāh, the Sublime, brings them to full discretion till He, the Almighty, makes them (peace be upon them) die.

33. CHAPTER ON EXCESS AND DELEGATION

(*AL-GHULUWW WA 'T-TAFWĪD*)

Abū Ja'far says: "Chapter concerning the denial of Excess and Delegation".

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd says: 'Excess' (*al-ghuluww*)⁵⁵, linguistically means 'exceeding the limit and turning aside from the true goal'. Allāh, the Almighty, says: *O, People of the Book!*

Do not exaggerate in your religion, nor utter aught concerning Allāh save the truth [4:171]. Hence, He forbade exceeding the limits concerning the belief in the Messiah, and warned against turning aside from the true goal in speech, and declared the Christians' claims about him excess, since they went beyond the limit, as we have explained. The Extremists (al-Ghulāt) among those who outwardly profess Islam, are those who attribute divinity and prophethood to the Commander of the Believers and Imāms of his progeny, peace be upon them, and ascribe to them privileges concerning their status in this world and the world to come, by which they go beyond the limit and turn aside from the goal; hence they are evil-doers and infidels whom the Commander of the Believers *has sentenced to death, and the stake; *⁵⁶ also the Imāms, peace be upon them, have branded them with unbelief and departing from the pale of Islam.

CHAPTER: As for what Abū Ja‘far mentions of the death of our Prophet and the Imāms by poison or murder, some of this is confirmed as fact and some not. What is confirmed is that the Commander of the Believers, al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn, peace be upon them, departed from this world by murder, none of them died a natural death. Mūsā ibn Ja‘far, peace be upon him, was killed by poison. It is highly probable that ar-Riḍā (‘Alī ibn Mūsā) was poisoned, yet this cannot be confirmed. As for the others, there is no justification for the claim that they were either poisoned or murdered or killed through persecution, since the reports concerning this matter are extremely confused, and there are no means of proving it definitely.

The adherents of the doctrine of delegation (al-Mufawwiḍah)⁵⁷ are a group of extremists who are distinguished from the others by their peculiar claim that though the Imāms are created, originated beings, and not eternal, yet they ascribe to them creation and sustaining. Also, they maintained that Allāh, the

Exalted, created them and ceased to create, delegating to them the creation of the world and what lay therein.

As for the Ḥallājiyyah, they are a certain group of Ṣūfīs, the adherents of the doctrine of licentiousness (*ibāḥah*) and incarnation (*al-ḥulūl*)⁵⁸. al-Ḥallāj⁵⁹ outwardly claimed to be a Shī'ah, yet he, in fact, was a Ṣūfī. The Ḥallājiyyah are, indeed, heretics and *zindīqs*, appearing to each sect as if they were of their persuasion, and claiming impossible powers for al-Ḥallāj, as the fire-worshippers used to ascribe miracles to Zoroaster, and the Christians who attribute miracles and wonders to their monks. Yet, fire-worshippers and Christians are nearer to fulfilling duties than they are, and, indeed, they are further removed from the observance and practice of the law than are the fire-worshippers and the Christians.

CHAPTER: As for the claim of Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, that he who accuses the learned divines of Qum of attributing to the Imāms less than their due, should be stigmatized as an extremist. In fact, the charging of this group with such attribution is not a sign of excess, since amongst those who are mentioned as learned divines and scholars, there are many who accuse the bona fide scholars of attributing less than their due to the Imāms, be they from Qum or from any other country or any other people.

We have heard a narration, the meaning of which is plain, related to the authority of Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan ibn al-Walīd⁶⁰, may Allāh have mercy upon him, and the interpretation in favour of *taqṣīr* is inescapable. This is what is related on his authority: "The first degree of excess is to deny that the Prophet and the Imāms were ever fallible (*sahw*)", Then if this was indeed related by him, he in fact attributes less than their due to the Imāms, and yet he is one of the divines of Qum. Moreover, we found a group of the divines of Qum who

openly and firmly made this attribution in their belief, and they were degrading the Imāms from their proper ranks, and alleging that they were ignorant of many of the religious ordinances until they received illumination. Also, we saw that many of them claim that they (the Imāms), apply religious law according to their personal opinion and suppositions, and yet they claim that they are divines and this indeed, is attributing to the Imāms less than their due.

Indeed, it is a sufficient sign of excess to claim that the Imāms are not created beings, and that they are divine and eternal, since the only logical conclusion of this assertion is excess; that the Imāms are the creators of bodies, originators of substances, and bring into existence accidents which are beyond human power. We need no more than this to judge or to ascertain their position without the signs which Abū Ja‘far, holds the marks of excess.

34. ON DISSIMULATION (*AT-TAQIYYAH*)

*Abū Ja‘far says: "Chapter concerning *at-taqiyyah*"*⁶¹. ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd adds: Dissimulation is disguising the truth and concealing belief therein, reticence in the face of one's opponents and refraining from divulging to them that which might result in injury to one's religious or worldly welfare. It is obligatory only when injury is absolutely certain, or the presumption of it is very strong. But if it was not certain or obvious that harm would result from disclosing the truth, nor was the presumption strong, then dissimulation is not obligatory.

The truthful ones, (the Imāms), peace be upon them, have ordered a certain group of their followers not only to refrain and cease from demonstrating the truth, but also to veil and conceal it from the enemies of the religion, and to appear to

them in such a way as to dispel their doubts during their disputation with them, since this was in their best interest; whereas they commanded another group of their followers to dispute with their opponents and divulge their true doctrine to them, and invite them to embrace the truth, since they knew that no harm would befall them. Hence, dissimulation is obligatory in the cases we have put forward; whereas the obligation is removed in other cases, as we have demonstrated above.

Moreover, Abū Ja'far has summarized the subject matter, and has not discussed it in detail as we have done. Also, he convicts himself by what he has said on the subject; since he himself has omitted an obligatory act in this respect, and stands condemned by his own words. This is so because he has disclosed his doctrine and the truth in which he believes in his famous audiences and the discussions conducted there, which were well-publicised, and his compilations which enjoyed a wide circulation; yet he has not realized the contradiction between his words and deeds. Then, had he discussed the matter fittingly as should have been done, and bridled his tongue in his discussions of these things, he would have been saved from self-contradiction; then the truth would have been made plain to those who seek the truth, and they would not have been confronted with difficulties, nor would doubts have obscured the meaning of the subject. But he did as the traditionists do in following the apparent meaning of the words, and abandoning critical methods. This is a view which vitiates the religion of him who holds it and prevents him from achieving fair-mindedness.

35. THAT THE ANCESTORS OF THE PROPHET
WERE MONOTHEISTS (*MUWAḤḤIDŪN*)

Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning the ancestors of the

Prophet, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, is that they were Muslims".

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd adds that: The ancestors of the Prophet, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, as far as Adam, peace be upon him, were monotheists (*muwahhidūn*) and believers in Allāh, as has been demonstrated by Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, and the consensus of opinion of the adherents of the truth. Allāh, the Exalted, says: *Who sees thee when thou standest, and when thou turnest about among those who prostrate themselves* [26:218-9], which means his transmission through the loins of the monotheists. His Prophet, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, says: "I was transmitted from the loins of the pure to the wombs of the chaste till Allāh, the Exalted, brought me forth in this world of yours," which demonstrates that his ancestors were all believers, since had there been an unbeliever amongst them, then they would not merit the description 'pure', for Allāh, the Exalted, says: *The polytheists are indeed unclean* [9:28]. Hence, He stigmatized the unbelievers are unclean. Consequently, when the Messenger of Allāh, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, affirmed that his ancestors were all chaste and so described them, he confirmed that they were believers.

36. CONCERNING THE INTERPRETATION OF THE VERSE:

SAY (O MUḤAMMAD, UNTO MANKIND):

"I ASK YOU NO REQUITAL THEREOF"

Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says that Allāh, the Exalted, has ordained a requital for His Prophet, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, for his apostleship and guidance of mankind's devotion to his *Ahlu 'l-Bayt*, peace be upon them. Then, he adduces in evidence of this the speech of Allāh: *Say* (O Muḥammad, unto mankind): *"I ask you no requital*

for this, save loving-kindness towards (my) kinsfolk" [42:23].

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that it is not true that Allāh, the Exalted, has made the requital of His Prophet men's devotion to his *Ahlu 'l-Bayt*, peace be upon them, nor that He made this a part of his reward. For the reward of the Prophet, may the blessing of Allāh be upon him and his progeny, for his devotion to Him is perpetual grace. It is this with which Allāh, the Exalted, out of His justice, generosity and bounty, has bound Himself to recompense him. For the rewarding of a deed is not owed to men as the act should be devoted sincerely to Allāh alone, and that which is Allah's is to be rewarded from Allāh alone, and none save Him. Further, Allāh, the Exalted, says: "*And, O my people! I do not ask of you wealth for this; my wage rests with Allāh alone*" [11:29]. He also says: "*O my people! I do not ask of you a wage for this; my wage falls only upon Him Who did originate me*" [ibid.:51].

Then, if the requital was in accordance with what Abū Ja'far presumed about the meaning of the verse, then the Qur'ān would have contradicted itself, since the verse would have to be rendered like this – 'I do not ask you a wage, but I do ask of you a wage'. And also – 'My wage is with Allāh alone, but rather my wage is with Allāh as well as with others than Him'. And this is impossible since the text of the Qur'ān cannot bear this meaning.

If then, it happened that someone said: "Then what is the meaning of 'I do not ask of you a wage for this, save loving-kindness towards (my) kinsfolk'? Does it not mean that He asked of them devotion towards his Prophet's progeny in return for what he has done for them?", then we would have to say that the facts are now what you have presumed them to be; since the proof of reason and of the Qur'ān refute it, as we demonstrated above.

The axceptive (*istithnā*) in this particular place is not part of the main sentence because it refers to something distinct from the main clause; 'I do not ask of you a return for this, but I ask and oblige you to show devotion towards kinsfolk'. Then His speech, "I do not ask of you a return for this", is an independent sentence complete in itself; while His speech (only I demand of you) "loving-kindness towards kinsfolk" forms a new sentence signifying, "but I do ask of you devotion to (my) kinsfolk". This is similar to His saying: *Then the angels bowed themselves all together, save Iblīs* [15:30-31], which means, "whereas Iblīs (did not)"; hence it is not an exceptive clause dependent on the preceding. And His saying: *They are an enemy to me, except the Lord of all beings* [26:77], which means, 'but the Lord of all beings is not an enemy of mine'. The poet says:

*A land in which there is no companion,
but the gazelles and the piebald camels.*

Then the meaning of his verse, 'A land in which there is no companion', is a self-sufficient sentence, complete in itself, while the verse, 'but the gazelles . . .' being a new sentence, means 'but there are gazelles and piebald camels in it'.

This is clear and has no obscurity for anyone with any knowledge of language, and it is too well-known to linguists to require elucidation.

37. ON PROHIBITION AND PERMISSION

(*AL-HAZR WA 'L-IBĀḤAH*)

Abū Ja'far says, concerning prohibition and permission, that "Everything is permitted . . ."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufid says: Things according to the dictates of reason fall into two categories; the first, those which are conceived as prohibited by reason, these are the things which

reason abhors and admonishes against, such as injustice, foolishness and vanity. The second are those which are not defined by reason as either forbidden or lawful but only by textual proof (*sam*'). This group includes deeds, the performance of which may corrupt on one occasion and be beneficial on another, and they are restricted to the rulings of canon law, which have suffered abrogation and amendment. Since, however the religious law is settled once and for all, the general decision is that: Everything that is not prohibited by *naṣṣ* (i.e., the specific ordinances of religion) is permitted, because the religious canon has laid down the limits of the law, and distinguished finally what is prohibited, so it follows logically that what lies outside their scope is permitted.

38. ON MEDICINE (*AT-TĪB*)

Abū Ja'far says: "Our belief concerning the reports on medicine . . ."

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, says: Medicine is a proper science, and a discipline approved by revelation; the scholars took their knowledge of it from the prophets. For there is no means of diagnosing illness except by textual proof, and no means of telling the remedy except by what is prescribed. Thus, it has been established that the way to know this is by textual proof (*sam*') from Him Who knows the secret essence of things, or by reports which have been handed down on the authority of the truthful Imāms, exemplified in the saying of the Commander of the Believers, "The stomach is the seat of every disease, and diet is the principal medicine, so let everyone keep his body to what he is accustomed to".

Also, a remedy which might prove useful to the people of one district, might prove fatal to the people of another, and a medicine

might benefit a people of a certain habit which would not help those of another. The truthful Imāms would prescribe for one of the sick people a medicine which proved to be harmful to others suffering from the same complaint, without harming him, since they were aware that the cause of the illness (in the first case) had ceased; so he who uses this medicine, uses it after recovery without being conscious of this. In fact, their knowledge of this was inspired by Allāh, the Almighty, in the manner of a miracle and as a supernatural proof of their distinctive status. Thus, some people presumed that when the medicine combined with the germs of the illness, it would benefit them; and this they were greatly mistaken and injured others. However, this is a consideration which Abū Ja‘far has not mentioned, though it is relevant to this chapter. As for the interpretations put forward by him, they are quite sound; the traditions may bear the meaning which he mentioned.

39. ON THE DIVERGENT TRADITIONS
(*AL -AḤĀDĪTHU 'L-MUKHTALIFAH*)

Abū Ja‘far says on the divergent traditions . . .

ash-Shaykh al-Mufīd, may Allāh have mercy upon him, comments that Abū Ja‘far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, did not explain the method of ascertaining which tradition is to be followed as binding precedent in jurisprudence, and which is not. In fact, he gives only a brief account of this, notwithstanding the need for a detailed examination to discriminate between what must be followed and what not, and for scrutinizing everyone of them, to tell the true tradition from the spurious, and what he has established in his summary is insufficient. We have discussed the divergence of the traditions and explained the difference between the sound and the spurious, the true and the false, and what is binding precedent and what is to be disregarded, and

that which agrees in content, although the wording differs, and that which stems from prudent fear (*at-taqiyyah*) and that where the meaning is the same as that expressed. All this is set out in our books and compilations in such a way as to dispel any doubt for those who will consult them, and grace is of Allāh, the Almighty. He who wants to comprehend this subject should consult our book entitled *at-Tamhīd*, and that entitled *Maṣābīḥu 'n-nūr*. Also, the responses (given) to our followers throughout the world. In brief, not every tradition ascribed to the truthful Imāms does, in fact, derive from them, since patent absurdities are ascribed to them (with others). Consequently, he who has not mastered this science cannot distinguish the true from the false.

Thus, different expressions have been related on their authority, of which the meanings are identical though they differ in expression. This difference is due to the fact that they deal with both the specific and the general (*al-khāṣṣ wa 'l-ʿāmm*), and the supererogatory and the obligatory; so, also, some deal with particular points on which the decision cannot be applied to other cases, and still others are worded metaphorically, out of prudent fear and cautious behaviour. Each of these categories has its own inferences and its own proofs, and grace is of Allāh, the Exalted.

However, these general considerations can be elaborated when we classify the divergent traditions accurately, as we have discussed above, and determined the meaning of them in the manner we described.

Thus, the false tradition, however many authorities are given for it, does not circulate as widely as the genuine which has been related on the authority of the Imāms, peace be upon them. And what has been related on their authority which is delivered out of expediency, is not related frequently on their authority like the one which is acted upon, since one of the two inevitably is given preference over the other, if the chain of the

authority is scrutinized closely. Moreover, our companions have not agreed unanimously either upon what is delivered because of expediency or upon what has been adulterated (*tadlīs*), or forged, or what has been put in their mouth falsely, or deceitfully ascribed to them.

Then, (as a general rule), when we find that one of the two traditions has been accepted as genuine and binding precedent, then it is that which is sound in both its exoteric and esoteric meanings, whereas the second one is not feasible, either because it has been said from prudence or it has been adulterated. And, if we find a tradition related on the authority of ten of the followers of the Imāms, peace be upon them, differs from another in both expression and meaning, and if it is impossible to reconcile the two, we should prefer the one related by ten to that related by two or three authorities; and we should consider that which is sustained only by a few as being delivered from prudence, or else that its transmitter has deluded himself. And, if we find that a particular tradition has been put into practice repeatedly by chosen companions of the Imāms, peace be upon them, continuously and in the lifetime of one Imām after another, then we should inevitably prefer it to a tradition which others sustain, and which differs from it, provided that it has not been strengthened by other chains or put into practice. And, if we find a tradition related on the authority of the learned divines of the group (i.e., the Shī'ah) and they have not testified to anything which differs from it, we consider the first to be sound; even if the latter has been related on others' authority, they are not comparable in number or distinction to the Imāms, as are the first, since this (i.e., closeness to the Imāms) is the sign of veracity and the distinction between true and false. It is indeed unlikely that the Imāms, peace be upon them, should deliver an opinion (*responsum*) dictated by prudence (*at-taqiyyah*) in a certain case, and that this should be heard by the learned divines among their companions without their having any

knowledge of its true interpretation, since, even if this escaped one, it would not escape all, as they were well-versed in delivering response, and the limits of what is lawful and what is prohibited, what is obligatory and what is supererogatory, and the general ordinances of religion.

Above all, whenever we find a tradition differing from the text of the Book (Qur'ān) and it cannot be reconciled with it, we discard it as the Book and the consensus of the Imāms' dictate, and so, if we find a tradition contradicts the rules of reason, we discard it, as reason declares it corrupt; yet we judge either that it is sound and has been delivered from prudence or false and has been ascribed to the Imāms, so we content ourselves with mentioning it, and admitting it in the light of the various kinds of expediency accepted as lawful by the *sharī'ah* and that which it proscribes, or those the current usage sanctions or denies.

This is part of the general rule which has been described in detail, and which (if applied) will show the truth in divergent traditions; yet the final judgment cannot be established before specifying the divergent traditions and applying the rules appropriate in each case, as we have explained. As for the tradition which Abū Ja'far, may Allāh have mercy upon him, relies on, and which has been mentioned in the book attributed to Sulaym⁶², on the authority of Abān ibn Abī 'Ayyāsh, the (general) meaning of it is sound, yet none the less, the book is unauthoritative and most of it cannot be accepted as binding precedent, since it has suffered corruption and adulteration; therefore the scrupulous should abandon all that it contains, and not rely on the greater part of it, or imitate its narrator, but enquire of the learned divines, to distinguish for him the sound from the spurious. And Allāh is He Who guides to the truth.

* * * * *

NOTES

PART TWO

¹ Not found in N.

² See al-Maydānī, *Majma' u 'l-amthāl*, vol.2, p.47; cf., az-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf*, vol.3, p.210; ar-Rāzī, *Tafsīr*, vol.8, p.203.

³ T, *laysa hadhā huwa 'l-wajh fi 't-tafsīr*: N, *laysa huwa 'l-wajh*.

⁴ See al-Maydānī, op. cit., vol.2, p.248.

⁵ T, 'an jazāi 'l-af'āl: N, *al-jazā' ala 'l-af'āl*, which is correct.

⁶ T, *falammā kānati 'l-mujāzā*: N, *falammā kānati 'l-af'āli 'l-mujāzā*, which is correct.

⁷ N reads only: *Faṣḥun fī ṣifāti 'dh-dhāt wa ṣifāti 'l-af'āl*.

⁸ T, *fathabatati 'l-'ibrah*: N, *fathabatati 'l-ghayriyyah*.

⁹ N, *qāla Abū Ja'far . . .* (without ash-Shaykh).

¹⁰ See p.89.

¹¹ Prof. Nicholson gives the following explanation for the word *zaddīq*:

"*Zaddīq* is an Aramaic word meaning 'righteous'. Its etymological equivalent in Arabic is *ṣiddīq*, which has a different meaning, namely 'veracious'. *Zaddīq* passed into Persian in the form *zandīk*, which was used by the Persians before Islam, and *zindīq* is the Arabicised form of the latter word". See *A Literary History of the Arabs*, p.375. Also, cf., Prof. Browne's *A Literary History of Persia*, (vol.1, pp.159-60). This interpretation, however, is not accepted by some scholars like Prof. Massignon, L., see *E.I.*, vol.1.4, put out a new and non-orthodox explanation (*zand*) of the Avesta, and which p.1228. "Under the Sasanids, originally, this name branded anyone who dared was then applied to Manicheans and Mazdakites in particular". See Brockelman, C., *History of the Islamic Peoples*, Eng. Transl., p.113. "In Islam, it denotes", says Prof. Tritton, "a Manichee, any Dualist, a Buddhist Monk and, later on, any free-thinker". See *Islam, Belief and Practices*, The Glossary, p.190. The movement during the second part of the second century of the *hijrah* represented both a religious and political danger to Islam, which compelled Islam to combat

it, politically by practical measures carried out by the government itself, and theologically, in the form of an intellectual revolt against dualist ideas in religion; this was left for the Mu'tazilah who represented – as the late Michelangelo Guidi observed, "The militant wing of the orthodoxy against the dualist heresies". See Gibb, H.A.R., *Studies on the Civilization of Islam*, article no.4, 'The Social Significance of the Shuubiya', p.67. For a similar opinion, see al-Khayyāt, *Kitābu 'l-Intisār*, the Introduction by the Editor, Nyberg, H.S.

¹² See p.98.

¹³ * * Not found in N.

¹⁴ N reads: *fmā dhakara Abū Ja'far fī 'l-qaḍā' wa 'l-qadr, qāla raḥimahu Allāh . . .*

¹⁵ N reads: *lā yaşluḥu bihi ākharūn.*

¹⁶ * * Not found in N.

¹⁷ * * Not found in N.

¹⁸ **Zurārah ibn A'yan ash-Shaybānī (d. 150 AH):** It is said that his real name was 'Abdu Rabbih, whereas Zurārah was his *laqab*. His *kunya* was Abu 'l-Hasan. He was one of the earliest distinguished Shī'ah divines and a remarkable theologian, jurist and traditionist. His father, Sunsun, is said to have been a Roman slave who was freed for his knowledge of the Qur'ān, and his grandfather is said to have become a Christian Monk. He was highly honoured by Imām Ja'far aṣ-Şādiq (a.s.), who said of him: "Had it not been for Zurārah, the traditions of my father would have been forgotten". The biographers ascribe to him, among other works, a theological tract called *al Jabr wa 'l-istiṭā'ah*. See Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, p.220; aṭ-Tūsī, *Rijāli 'sh-Shī'ah*, p.123; al-Kishshī, *ar-Rijāl*, p.88; an-Najāshī, *al-Fihrist*, p.125, adh-Dhahabī, *Mīzānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.2, p.69, no.2853; al-Māmaqānī, *Tanqīhu 'l-maqāl*, vol.1, p.438, no.4213.

¹⁹ The Shī'ah theologians call themselves *al-Khāṣṣah*, whereas they denote by *al-'Āmmah* the Sunnites generally.

²⁰ See al-Bukhārī, *aṣ-Şaḥīḥ, tafsīr* of *sūrah* 30; Muslim, *aṣ-Şaḥīḥ, Kitābu 'l-Qadar*, Tradition no.22.

²¹ **Ismā'īl ibn Ja'far aṣ-Şādiq:** The eldest son of the sixth Imām, His father at first nominated him as his successor to the imāmate, but later on deposed him from this position because of his excessive addiction to drink. Though he died five years before his father at Medina in 143/760-1, and though his body was publicly exposed and his death attested to by numerous witnesses, many among his followers held that he survived his father and ascribed to him many miraculous acts. The Seveners (*as-*

Sab'iyah), that is, the Ismā'īliyyah sect of the Shī'ah, with its various offshoots, derives its name from him. See al-Maqrīzī, *Itti'āzu 'l-ḥunafā'*, vol.1, p.16; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *Talbīs Iblīs*, p.102; an-Nawbakhtī, *Firaqu 'sh-Shī'ah*, p.35; ash-Shahristānī, *al-Milal*, vol.2, p.5; Lewis, B., *The Origins of Ismā'īlism*, p.38; *E.I.*, the article "Ismā'īl ibn Ja'far", by Huart, C.H., vol.2, i, p.549.

[This view has been quoted from the non-Imāmite sources, but for the right opinion concerning Ismā'īl and his life history see our "Introduction" to the English translation of *Kitāb al-Irshād* which will be published by the Will of Allāh (ed.)]

- ²² **Muḥammad ibn Ya'qūb ibn Ishāq al-Kulaynī ar-Rāzī:** He is known as Abū Ja'far, the compiler of the great compendium of Shī'ite traditions, *al-Kāfi fī 'ilmi 'd-dīn*, which occupies in Shī'ism a position analogous with that of the *Ṣaḥīḥ*, of al-Bukhārī among the Sunnīs. It was his life-work and took twenty years to compile. He is called, in recognition of his diligence in collecting Shī'ite traditions, the Trustworthy authority of Islam "Thiqatu 'l-Islām", (In respect to Thiqatu 'l-Islām al-Kulaynī and the book of *al-Kāfi*, see our two introductions to the English translation of *al-Kāfi* at the beginning of the "The Book of Reason and Ignorance" [ed.]

al-Kulaynī was born probably before 260/847, and died in Baghdad in Sha'bān, 329 AH (May, 941 AD). For a critical and detailed account of his life and work see Ivanow, W., *The Alleged Founder of Ismā'īlism*, pp.11-27. Also, the "Introduction" to the new edition of *al-Kāfi* by Dr. Ḥusayn 'Alī Maḥfūz (Tehran, 1381 AH). an-Najāshī, op. cit. p.266; aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.495; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.3, p.211, no.11540.

- ²³ **Yūnus ibn Ya'qūb ibn Qays:** His *kunya* was Abū 'Alī al-Jallāb. He was contemporary with both aṣ-Ṣādiq, the sixth Imām, and his son, al-Kāzīm (a.s.). He was highly esteemed by the Shī'ah for his profound knowledge of *fiqh*. The Shī'ah biographers honour him for being the author of a book on pilgrimage, which is counted among the Four Hundred Principle Books. He died during the imāmate of the Eighth Imām, 'Alī ibn Mūsā ar-Riḍā (203/ 818). See an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.311; al-Kishshī, op. cit., p.245; aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.335; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.3, p.344, no.13365.

- ²⁴ For more detail concerning this debate, see al-Kulaynī, *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, p.171; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.1, p.371.

- ²⁵ **Ḥumrān ibn A'yan ash-Shaybānī:** His *kunya* is variously reported as Abū 'l-Ḥasan or Abū Ḥamzah. He was a distinguished traditionist and jurist. He was contemporary with both Imāms, al-Bāqir and aṣ-Ṣādiq (a.s.), and was highly respected by the latter, of whom it is reported that he said:

"Ḥumrān is one of our company both in this world and the world here-after". He also promised him paradise for his intimacy with the Family of the Prophet, and his staunch defence of the Shī'ah tenets. Opinions differ concerning his trustworthiness, thus, while the Shī'ah authorities generally praised him and accepted him as a reliable transmitter, the orthodox were split; some discarded his reports, others accepted them as genuine and reliable. See al-Kishshī, op. cit., p.117; aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.117; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.1, pp.370-2, no.3351; adh-Dhahabī, *Mīzānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.1, p.604, no.2292; Ibn Ḥajar, *Tahdhību 't-tahdhīb*, vol.1.3, p.25, no.32; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, p.220.

- ²⁶ **Muḥammad ibn 'Abdillāh ibn aṭ-Ṭayyār:** A follower of the Fifth Imām Muḥammad al-Bāqir (a.s.). He was known as a dialectic theologian and a reciter of the Qur'ān. See al-Kishshī, op. cit., pp.222-3; aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., pp.135-292; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.3, p.134, no.10895.
- ²⁷ See *al-Kāfi*, "Introduction" to "The Book of Divine Unity", (Eng. transl.), published by WOFIS, Tehran.
- ²⁸ **Qays al-Māšir:** The famous Shī'ah theologian and traditionist, who lived during the first half of the second century of the *hijrah*. He was an intimate associate of the Fourth Imām, 'Alī ibn al-Ḥusayn (d. 92/710-1), from whom, it is said, he acquired skill in disputation. He relates many traditions on the authority of aṣ-Ṣādiq (a.s.). See al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.2, p.33, no.9728; al-'Āmilī, *A'yānu 'sh-Shī'ah*, vol.1, pt.2, p.77.
- ²⁹ See *al-Kāfi*, "Introduction" to "The Book of Divine Unity", (Eng. transl.), published by WOFIS, Tehran.
- ³⁰ **Muḥammad ibn Ḥakīm al-Kath'amī:** His *kunyah* was Abū Ja'far. He was associated with both aṣ-Ṣādiq and his son al-Kāzim (a.s.). See aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.316; an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.205; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.1.3, p.109, no.10624.
- ³¹ See p.92.
- ³² al-Kulaynī, *al-Kāfi*, "Bābu 't-Taqlīd", vol.1, p.53.
- ³³ T, *ḥamalāt jamī'i 'l-khalq*: N, *jumlat jamī'i 'l-khalq*. Prof. Fyzee (*A Shī'ite Creed*, Note no.III) reads *jumlat* for *ḥamalāt*. However, *ḥamalāt* is more in keeping with the chapter and what is generally held by the Shī'ah traditionists, concerning *al-'Arsh*. See al-Ash'arī, *Maqālatu 'l-Islāmiyyīn*, vol.1, p.35.
- ³⁴ N reads, *qāla ash-Shaykh Abū 'Abdillāh 'alayhi 'r-raḥmah, amma 'n-naḥṣ . . .*

- ³⁵ See al-Bukhārī, *aṣ-Ṣaḥīḥ*, "Kitābu 'l-Anbiyā", "Bābu 'l-arwāḥ junūd mujan-nadah", no.1; Muslim, *aṣ-Ṣaḥīḥ*, "Kitābu 'l-birr wa 'ṣ-ṣilah wa 'l-ādāb". Tradition no.159.
- ³⁶ **Nawāṣīb:** An appellation used by the Shī'ah to designate those who refuse any pre-eminence to 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib (a.s.), sometimes applied to the orthodox indiscriminately. Friedlaender, I., says that "Originally, Nawāṣīb stood for the exact reverse of Rawāfiq: the 'enemies' or 'haters' of 'Alī, and was confined to the extreme Khārijites. Gradually, its meaning expanded so that it finally embraced all the Sunnites, however far they were from hating 'Alī." (*The Heterodoxies of the Shī'ites in the Presentation of Ibn Ḥazm*, vol.2, p.156). See also, Ibn Manzūr, *Lisānu 'l-'Arab*, vol.1, p.762.
- ³⁷ T, *shana' a bihi 'n Nāṣibah*; N, *mā shana' a . . .*
- ³⁸ * * Not found in N.
- ³⁹ See Ibn Hishām, *as-Sīrah*, Eng. transl. by Guillaume, A., p.306.
- ⁴⁰ *Ḥarbu 'l-Baṣrah*, also called *Ḥarbu 'l-Jamal*, because 'Āishah, the wife of the Prophet, was mounting a camel, around which the battle was concentrated. *Ḥarbu 'l-Jamal* was the first civil war in Islam which took place between Amīru 'l-Mu'minīn, 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib (a.s.), and Ṭalḥah ibn 'Ubaydillāh, az-Zubayr ibn al-'Awwām and 'Āishah. See at-Tabarī, *at-Tārīkh*, vol.1, pt.6, p.3078; Ibnu 'l-Athīr, *al-Kāmil*, vol.3, p.165; Ibn Kathīr, *al-Bidāyah*, vol.7, p.229; al-Maqdisī, *al-Bad' wa 't-tārīkh*, vol.5, p.211.
- ⁴¹ **Ka'b ibn Sūr:** (It is written 'Sūrah' which is a mistake.) A companion, who was sent by 'Umar as a judge to Baṣrah. He is known to be a man of extreme piety who would pray throughout the night and fast the whole day; thereupon, his wife complained of him to the Caliph who ordered him to be moderate in his worship and observe his family obligations. It is reported that he was one of those who refrained from fighting in the early stages of the Battle of Camel (*i'tazala 'l fitnah*) and shut himself inside a cottage; later on, under the pressure of 'Āishah, he came out displaying his Qur'ān in an effort to make peace between the two camps, but was shot down by a stray arrow. See Ibn Sa'd, *aṭ-Ṭabaqāt*, vol.7, p.65.
- [Ka'b ibn Sūr was not a companion of the Holy Prophet, and he had not heard anything from the Holy Prophet or met him. He was only a *tābi'ī*. See Ibn 'Abdi 'l-Barr, *al-Isṭi'āb*, vol.3, pp.1318-9; Ibnu 'l-Athīr, *Usdu 'l-ghābah*, vol.4, pp.242-3; Ibn Ḥajar, *al-Iṣābah*, vol.3, pp.314-5. Ibn Sa'd mentions him as a *tābi'ī* from Baṣrah who was the companion of 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb (ed.)]
- ⁴² * * Not found in N.

⁴³ * * Not found in N.

⁴⁴ T, wa *ta'abbuduhum bidhālika liyuthibahum 'alayhā* – N, wa *'t-ta'abbudu bidhālika liyuthibahum 'ala 'l-a'māli 'l-latī yuadduna biha 't-taklīf kamā ta'abbada 'l-bashar wa 'l-jinn bi 'l-a'māl liyuthibahum 'alayhā* . . .

⁴⁵ See al-Kulaynī, *al-Kāfi*, vol.1, p.218, Tradition nos.1 & 2. Also, al-Mufīd, *al-Ikhtisāṣ*, p.303.

⁴⁶ * * Not found in N.

⁴⁷ * * Not found in N.

⁴⁸ For the meaning of *taḥābut*, see Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisānu 'l-'Arab*, vol.6, p.270; ar-Rāzī, *at-Tafsīr*, vol.2, p.220; al-Jurjānī, *Sharḥu 'l-mawāqif*, vol.2, p.488.

⁴⁹ * * Not found in N.

⁵⁰ This is one of the five principal tenets of the Mu'tazilah. See al-Khayyāt, *al-Intiṣār*, p.126; al-Ash'arī, op. cit., vol.1, p.278.

⁵¹ **Hadd**: Literally means to restrain from, *al-man'*. In jurisprudence it means the restrictive ordinances of the religious law of Islam. See al-Jurjānī, *at-Ta'rīfāt*, p.57; Ibn Manẓūr, op. cit., vol.3, p.142.

⁵² * * Not found in N.

⁵³ **Zihār**: Putting away the wife by saying: "Thou art to me as the back of my mother." This concerned Khawlah bint Mālik ibn Tha'labah, who was divorced by her husband. Aws ibn Šāmit, with this form of words, current among the Arabs of the *jāhiliyyah* but forbidden in Islam by this verse, The penance for it is the freeing of a slave, the feeding of sixty poor or two months successive fast. For a detailed discussion, see Ibnu 'l-'Arabī, *Aḥkāmū 'l-Qur'ān*, vol.4, p.1734; al-Qāsimī, *Maḥāsīnu 't-ta'wīl*, vol.16, p.5706.

⁵⁴ * * Not found in N.

⁵⁵ **al-Ghuluww**: The technical term for the ultra-Shī'ah groups. "Originally, it seems to have had", as Friedlaender observed, "a wider range and to have been applied to other than Shī'ite movements", (op. cit., p.12). 'Alī burnt* several of certain groups of them who publicly proclaimed his divinity. ash-Shahristānī says that the innovations of the extremists can be restricted to four: Anthropomorphism (*at-tashbīh, al-badā'*, i.e., mutability of Allāh's Will), *ar-raj'ah* (the return) and *at-tanāsukh*, transmigration or reincarnation, (*al-Milal*, vol.2, p.11). See also *Lisānu 'l-'Arab*, vol.15, p.132; an-Nawbakhtī, *Firaqu 'sh-Shī'ah*, p.35; al-Ash'arī, op. cit., vol.1, p.16; Ibn Ḥazm, *al-Fiṣal*, vol.4, p.186; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, *Talbīs Iblīs*, p.99; at-Tahānawī, *Kashshāf iṣṭilāḥāti 'l-funūn*, vol.2, p.1099.

*[What has come to us in the Shī'ite Traditions Amīru 'l-Mu'minīn, peace be upon him, has not killed them by burning but they were suffocated by

an overwhelming sour fumes. What has been narrated by the translator was quoted from the Sunnī sources (ed.).]

⁵⁶ T, *ḥakama fihim Amīru 'l Mu'minīn bi 'l-qatl wa 't-tahrīq bi 'n-nār*. . . ; N, *ḥakama fihim Amīru 'l-Mu'minīn bi 'l-kufr*.

⁵⁷ **al-Mufawwiḍah**: A group which maintains that Allāh created Muḥammad, peace be upon him and his progeny, (some add 'Alī, peace be upon him), then He committed to him (or to them) the management of the world and the disposal of its affairs. Then Muḥammad, peace be upon him and his progeny, entrusted the rule of the universe to 'Alī and the Imāms, peace be upon them, after him. According to Friedlaender, "At the bottom of this idea lies the Gnostic discrimination between the 'unoriginated, inconceivable Father' and the word (Logos) emanating from him which is Demiurge", op. cit., p.92; see also al-Baghdādī, *al-Firaq*, p.237; al-Ash'arī, op. cit., p.16; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, op. cit., p.98; Ibn Ḥazm, op. cit., vol.4, p.179.

⁵⁸ **al-Ḥulūliyyah**: A group who derive their name from the doctrine of incarnation, *ḥulūl*, and incorporation, *imtizāj*. They held that it is possible and permissible for Allāh to become incarnated in man's body. Most of them have, also, an inclination to a relaxed attitude towards religious obligations prescribed by the Divine Law. The Ḥulūlīs are often mentioned as followers of and related to al-Ḥallāj; nevertheless, al-Hujwīrī denies this relation and says that, "In the compositions of al-Ḥallāj himself there is nothing but profound theosophy" (al-Hujwīrī, *Kashfu 'l-mahjūb*, Eng. transl. by Prof. Nicholson, R.A., p.260). See al-Baghdādī, op. cit., p.241; al-Ash'arī, op. cit., pp.13-14; Ibnu 'l-Jawzī, op. cit., p.171 ; Friedlaender, L, op. cit., vol.2, p.12; at-Tahānawī, op. cit., vol.1, p.352.

⁵⁹ **Abu 'l-Mughīth al-Ḥusayn ibn Maṣṣūr ibn Maḥāmā al-Bayḍāwī**: A Persian mystic and theologian. His grandfather is said to have been a magician. He was born in 244/858 at at-Tūr near al-Bayḍā (Fārs). He was accused of being charlatan by the Mu'tazilah, ex-communicated by a *tawqī'* of the Imāmiyyah and a *fatwā* of the Zāhiriyyah, and twice arrested by the 'Abbāsīd police (*E.I.*, the article, "al-Ḥallāj", by Massignon, L.). "The Šūfī *shaykhs*", says al-Hujwīrī, "are at variance concerning him. Some reject him, while others accept him. Others suspended their judgment about him" (op. cit., p.150). He was executed by crucifixion after a trial on Tuesday, 24th Dhi 'l-Qi'dah, 309 AH (26th March, 922 AD), during the caliphate of al-Muqtadir, because in one of his ecstasies he had cried out "I am the Truth". "al-Ḥallāj", says al-Hujwīrī, "was the author of brilliant compositions and allegories and polished sayings in theology and jurisprudence" (op. cit., p.151). See Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, *al-Fihrist*, pp.190-2;

Ibn Khallikān, op. cit., vol.1, p.183; adh-Dhahabī, *Mizānu 'l-i'tidāl*, vol.1, p.548; Browne, E.G., *A Literary History of Persia*, vol.1, p.428; Nicholson, R.A., *A Literary History of the Arabs*, p.399.

⁶⁰ **Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan ibn Aḥmad ibn al-Walīd:** He is known as Abū Ja'far al-Qummī (d. 343 AH), was a celebrated traditionist, a jurist of high reputation and the spritual head of the Qummī divines. He was accepted by the traditionists as a trustworthy and realiable transmitter. He was the *shaykh* of Ibn Bābawayh al-Qummī. See an-Najāshī, op. cit., p.271; aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.495; al-Māmaqānī, op.cit., vol.3, p.100, no.10534.

⁶¹ * * Not found in N.

⁶² **Sulaym ibn Qays al-Hilālī al-Āmirī al-Kūfī:** His *kunyah* was Abū Ṣādiq. He was accused by al-Ḥajjāj for his Shī'ite learnings, a charge which made him go into hiding. He was a companion of 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib and known as a man of piety. It is said that his face was illuminated by his piety. It is also said that he handed over the traditions entrusted to him by 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib to Abān ibn Abī 'Ayyāsh as a mark of gratitude for granting him a refuge. See aṭ-Ṭūsī, op. cit., p.43; al-Kishshī, op. cit., p.68; al-Māmaqānī, op. cit., vol.2, p.52, no.5157; Ibnu 'n-Nadīm, op. cit., p.219.

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